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ART I.—*Travels in China ; containing Descriptions, Observations, and Comparisons, made and collected in the Course of a short Residence at the Imperial Palace of Yuen-min-yuen, and on a subsequent Journey through the Country from Peking to Canton. In which it is attempted to appreciate the Rank that this extraordinary Empire may be considered to hold in the Scale of Civilized Nations. By John Barrow, Esq. Late Private Secretary to the Earl of Macartney, and one of his Suite as Ambassador from the King of Great Britain to the Emperor of China.* 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell. 1804.

AT the time that Europe was waking from the profound sleep of the dark ages, China was, comparatively speaking, in a very advanced stage of civilization. The splendour of its monarchy, the order of its government, the learning of its mandarins, the silken dresses of the meanest inhabitants, the stupendous works of art manifested in its immense wall, and a canal traversing the whole empire, struck travellers with the utmost astonishment: and on their return into their own country every thing around them appeared mean and pitiful, while their neighbours received the report of real facts as exaggerated tales, the mere result of an overheated imagination. Succeeding travellers confirmed the reports of their predecessors: the Letters of the Missionaries were perused with eagerness; and men of learning, dissatisfied (and not without reason) with many institutions at home, took delight in expatiating on the excellences of the remote empire of China, but kept studiously out of sight all its defects. During this period Europe was making rapid advances in improvement; but China seems to have been stationary. The improved race viewed this wonderful country with different eyes: the marvellous gradually subsided: its defects became prominent:

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and instead of being a model for legislation, morality, and learning, it was suspected to be in every one of these respects inferior to most of the states of our western world.

A factory had been established for a long time by the English East India company in a remote corner of China; but trade is held in great contempt in that country, and the agents of the factory do not seem to have made any attempts to raise its credit. They were contented with their appropriate business to buy and to sell, and to get gain: oftentimes little studious of the means, and whilst they complained of the disposition of the Chinese to fraud, unhappily gave convincing proofs that honesty was not the peculiar attribute of the European character. In China rank is estimated not by birth, or riches, but by learning: and this learning is employed not on a foreign, but in the intricacies of their own very extraordinary and scientific language. To attain a certain degree of proficiency in this language is not difficult: but this seems not to have been aimed at by our agents, who transacted their business through the means of interpreters, and were of course esteemed as fit company for a mandarin of high rank, as an orange barrow girl in this country is for that of a lady of quality.

The trade between England and China became at last a matter of national importance. Our merchants laboured under some difficulties; and it was supposed that by a solemn embassy to Peking, the emperor might embrace at least some of the notions which the English are apt to entertain of the greatness of their own nation, and thence that the trade between the two countries might be carried on upon a more liberal footing. Very great presents were therefore prepared: a *mandarin* (as the Chinese would say) of high rank was appointed to lay them at the foot of the great emperor: permission was given to the embassy to land; and the moment it set foot on Chinese ground, all its expences were, according to the custom of the East, defrayed by the emperor in the most liberal manner. The presents indeed were conveyed not very agreeably to the feelings of the embassy; for they were preceded by flags denoting them to be tribute to the emperor: and the jealousy of the country towards strangers was an additional mortification, as it prevented in a very great degree every species of intercourse with the natives.

Two accounts of this embassy have been given to the public: the one, according to our author, 'founded on the crude notes of one *Æneas Anderson*, a *livery servant* of lord Macartney, vamped up by a London bookseller as a speculation that could not fail;' the other by the late sir George Staunton, who is said by our author to have been 'no less amiable for liberality

of sentiment, than remarkable for vigour of intellect ; and it would therefore be idle and superfluous in any other person who accompanied the embassy, to dwell on those subjects which have been treated by him in so masterly a manner, or to recapitulate those incidents and transactions which he has detailed with equal elegance and accuracy.' The 'vamped up' works of this 'livery servant,' and the splendid history of sir G. Staunton, are both before the public, which does not look upon those publications with the same eyes as our author : the 'livery servant' having related his simple tale in such a manner, that very little additional information was obtained by the labours of the industrious baronet, who appeared to perform the office of 'bookdresser' to the embassy, not more ably than the gentleman who is supposed to have undertaken the same office for the 'livery servant.' An intimation is given, that we may expect that

'the information, reflections, and opinions of the ambassador himself may one day be fully communicated to the public, when the present objections to it shall cease, and the moment arrives (which is probably not very distant) that will enable us to act upon the ideas of that nobleman's capacious and enlightened mind, and to prove to the world, that the late embassy, by shewing the character and dignity of the British nation in a new and splendid light to a court and people, in a great measure ignorant of them before, however misrepresented by the jealousy and envy of rivals, or impeded by the counteraction of enemies, has laid an excellent foundation for great future advantages.'

We have not the least doubt that his lordship's reflections will be very entertaining, but cannot anticipate much new information from his intended work. He was nearly as much a prisoner as the rest of his suite ; every motion was watched, and the officious complaisance of all around him allowed him only to notice the scenes of nature, but gave him no opportunity of learning any thing with respect to the interior government and manners of the people.

What indeed could be expected, if the notes and reflections of every person in this embassy were ransacked from beginning to end ? They land in China, are conveyed directly under the conduct of certain officers to the capital ; at which place they arrive on the 21st of August, and quit it on the 7th of October, to be dispatched with equal speed to Canton, without permission to reside in any of the towns, and scarcely deviating a step from the line of their appointed route. It does not appear, that during their stay one single person was ever entertained in the private house of a Chinese : wherever they were, apartments were provided for them, but they could

tell as little of the interior of the rich mansions of Peking, as a foreigner who should lodge in Wapping, and parade a few times from thence to Hyde-park Corner, can tell of the manners of Portman or Cavendish square.

We may easily judge of the real state of the embassy, from an anecdote related very early in the work :—On the day of the emperor's return to the capital, lord Macartney was hurried off at four in the morning to take his stand about twelve miles from the town, that he might pay his obeisance to the emperor as he passed. All the great officers in the state were in the procession, which extended as far as the eye could reach, and the utmost magnificence prevailed in their dresses. The road was lined with spectators, and the embassy was placed on a high bank on the left of the road, where the emperor condescended to notice it by a gracious bow, and sent a message to the ambassador to recommend him to return immediately to Peking, and not to stop at Yuen-min-yuen. The embassy, tired of standing, and pinched with the cold, were glad to be released from their duty, and galloped along with some of the Tartar cavalry, but deviated from the prescribed route at a little distance from the city, with a view to enter it by a different gate, and so see a little more of the place. The moment they turned aside, the design was detected: a clamour was excited: on galloped the embassy: they 'got through the gate, but were pursued with such a hue and cry, that they were glad to escape through one of the cross streets leading to their hotel, where they arrived with at least a hundred soldiers at their heels.' Thus these gentlemen, who, an hour or two before, were boasting that whilst all the people around them fell prostrate during the passing of the emperor, they 'bent one knee only to the ground,' discovered, to their complete confusion, that however inclined the government might be to relax in a matter of mere ceremonial, it was determined to adhere rigidly to the more important matter of secluding the strangers from all free intercourse with the natives. The relaxation of the ceremonial is a proof also, that the Chinese are not so bigoted to form as we may imagine: they were contented with the essential; and, if bending the knee was the mark of subjection in the western world, the Peking gazette would naturally represent, that the embassy did homage to the emperor in its country's custom of bending the knee, and this would be construed into a mark of inferiority, exactly in the same manner as the presents were converted into tribute.

From persons thus confined nothing but general information can be expected; and it is very improbable that any thing should be communicated, which had not reached us from

other sources. Every one knew before this embassy was sent from England, that China was subject to a monarch, and that its government was administered by men selected from every province by an examination of candidates for office; that there was neither nobility nor established religion; that the common people were idolaters, and that at certain times it was the custom of all ranks to pay religious reverence to their deceased ancestors; that the mandarins were supposed to be atheists (and to their real sentiments we have no clue in this work); that the country was governed by written laws, and that they were well acquainted with printing; that the bamboo was an instrument of punishment very general in its application; that the kingdom was extremely populous; that the canal was covered with boats; that manufactures of various kinds were carried on to a very great extent; and that, if the people did not possess much of the talent of invention, they surpassed every other nation in the powers of imitation.

All this, and much more, we had learned from Du Halde, the Letters of the Missionaries, and the accounts of other travellers; yet the repetition of them in the six hundred pages of this author is by no means unentertaining. We could not expect much deep research from him; yet in the course of his journey he has marked those circumstances which confirm the impression we have received of the Chinese, and excite a desire for more enlarged information. The Chinese character, like that of all other nations, has its excellences and its defects: the prominent features excite our approbation; whilst, as in the polished inhabitants of ancient Greece and Rome, those horrible crimes are tolerated, which excite in all who have a true idea of the dignity of human nature, the utmost indignation and contempt.

The Chinese have been represented as a nation very much addicted to thieving: yet their honesty, sobriety, and carefulness, are scarcely to be paralleled, if we may judge of their possession of these qualities by the occurrences in this embassy. Of the number of packages, which amounted to not less than six hundred of various sizes and descriptions, not a single article was missing or injured on their arrival at the capital, notwithstanding they had been moved about and carried by land, and transhipped several times. In unpacking a similar care was remarkable: 'on arriving at Yuen-min-yuen,' says our author,

'I found a number of Chinese workmen busily employed in breaking open the packages, some in one place and some in another, to the no little danger of the globes, clocks, glass lustres, and such like frangible articles, many of which must inevitably have suffered under less careful and dexterous hands than those of the Chinese. As it was intended they should be placed in one large

room, the great hall in which the emperor gives audience to his ministers, the first operation was to move them all thither, and carefully to unpack them; and we had the satisfaction to find that not a single article was either missing or injured.' P. 106.

Cheerfulness seems to be a characteristic of the nation:

'The cheerful and good-natured countenances of the multitude were extremely prepossessing; not less so their accommodating behaviour to one another. There was an innocence and simplicity in their features, that seemed to indicate a happy and contented turn of mind. This, however, being a sort of gala day, we might, on account of the extraordinary occasion, perhaps have viewed them to the best advantage; yet the same cheerful and willing mind had constantly shewn itself on all occasions, by all those who were employed in the service of the embassy. On board the yachts constant mirth and good humour prevailed among the seamen.' P. 80.

European soldiers may take a lesson from the conduct of their brethren in China:

'A file of soldiers now moved along with the procession on each side of the road, armed with whips, which they continually exercised in order to keep off the crowd that increased as we approached the capital, and, at length, was so great as to obstruct the road. We observed, however, that though the soldiers were very active and noisy in brandishing their whips, they only struck them against the ground, and never let them fall upon the people. Indeed a Chinese crowd is not so tumultuous and unruly as it generally is elsewhere.' P. 89.

Indeed an English and Chinese mob are two very different things, and a little more urbanity among us would no ways injure our character:

'Although an extraordinary crowd might be expected to assemble on such a particular occasion, on the same principle of curiosity as could not fail to attract a crowd of spectators in London, yet there was a most remarkable and a striking difference observable between a London and a Peking populace. In the former the whole attention and soul of the multitude would have been wrapt up in the novel spectacle; all would have been idlers. In Peking, the shew was but an accessory; every one pursued his business, at the same time that he gratified his curiosity. In fact, it appeared that, on every day throughout the whole year, there was the same noise and bustle and crowd in the capital of China. I scarcely ever passed the western gate, which happened twice, or oftener, in the week, that I had not to wait a considerable time before the passage was free, particularly in the morning, notwithstanding the exertions of two or three soldiers with their whips to

clear the way. The crowd, however, was entirely confined to the great streets, which are the only outlets of the city. In the cross lanes all was still and quiet.' P. 57.

The Chinese laws allow of pressing, and *the emperor's service* is an excuse for tearing away a poor man from his home and family. At an island where pilots were wanted, application was made to the governor, who instantly issued orders for all men acquainted with the coast by which the ship was to pass, to appear before him,—and the tears and supplications of those who were selected for this service were of no avail.

'This arbitrary proceeding of the governor conveyed no very exalted ideas of the justice or moderation of the government, or of the protection it afforded to the subject. To drag away from his family an honest and industrious citizen, settled in trade, and to force him into a service that must be ruinous to his concerns, was an act of injustice and violence that could not be tolerated in any other than a despotic government, where the subject knows no laws but the will of the tyrant. But we are yet on a distant island of the great empire, remote from the fountain of authority; and delegated power, in all countries, is but too liable to be abused. Besides, a Chinese might be impressed with sentiments equally unfavourable of our government, were he informed of the manner in which imperious necessity sometimes requires our navy to be manned.' P. 59.

From this specimen of their government it may be concluded that their police is extremely well regulated;—and it is so in the great cities; but the bands of robbers which rove about some districts of the country, are a manifest proof of the great imbecility or great inattention of the government. From drunkenness the nation is remarkably free; but, in lieu of it, in gambling it may vie with any country of Europe. Suicide is frequent; infanticide very common: a remarkable degree of attention is paid by the laws to the life of an individual, who cannot be executed without an examination of his case by the high tribunal at Peking; yet an indifference prevails with respect to each other in case of accidents, that seems unaccountable. Of the women we can know but little from this work, for it does not appear that the writer ever conversed with any: they appear but little in public, and the strange custom of pinching their feet renders that limb not only very deformed, but effectually prevents them from following the amusements of our world. The practice of buying and selling women excites the author's peculiar indignation; and is indeed a striking feature of immorality, which must be attended with many unhappy consequences.

'The superior style of dress and the appearance of the women in public at Sou-tchoo-foo, so different from the general custom of the country, could only be explained to us by the writings of the Christian missionaries, who observe that the concubines of mandarins and men of property are chiefly procured from the cities of Yang-tchoo and of Sou-tchoo, where they are educated in the pleasing arts of singing, music and dancing, and every other accomplishment suitable to women of superior rank, in order to render them the more agreeable and fascinating. That such women are generally purchased by persons engaged in the trade, in different parts of the country, and trained in these cities, where they are disposed of to the highest bidder, "this being the principal branch of trade that is carried on in those two cities." How do these holy men reconcile so infamous a traffic among a people whom they have adorned with every virtue? a people whom they have rendered remarkable among nations for their filial piety! Is there on earth a crime more revolting against civilized nature, or more detestable to civilized society, than that of a parent selling his own child and consigning her, expressly and voluntarily, into a state of prostitution? Those unfortunate wretches who, in Europe, have by any accident reduced themselves to that degraded and deplorable condition of becoming subservient to the pleasures of a man, whom they probably detest, are generally the objects of pity, however their conduct may be disapproved; but a parent, who should be the cause of reducing them to such a state, would be execrated; but the assertion is as absurd as ridiculous, and the writer must have been very credulous to suppose, that the "principal trade" of one of the largest cities in the world, whose population cannot be less than a million of souls, should consist in buying and selling ladies of pleasure. Buying females in the legal way is certainly the greatest branch of trade throughout China, as every woman there is bought and sold. These reverend gentlemen likewise inform us, with great indifference, that if a man be desirous of having a male child and his wife should happen to be barren, he will purchase one of these concubines for the sole purpose of getting an heir; and, when this is accomplished, he either provides her with a husband, or turns her adrift. Such are the moral virtues of the Chinese, compared with whom all other nations have been accounted barbarous.' P. 518.

We must not however bear too hard upon the Chinese for this instance of their conduct toward the fair sex, when London exhibits every night such numbers whose charms are upon sale, and the conduct of the English in this respect might be considered by a native of China to be as great a breach of morality as the sale of women in his own country.

The property in land is vested in the emperor; who is content however with a small part of the produce, and the subject is very little harassed by taxation: yet in general poverty seems to be the lot of the great bulk of the inhabitants, though

they have neither *large farms* nor *monopolists in corn* to increase (as they are idly supposed to do in Europe) the price of the necessaries of life. Land is divided into very small portions, just capable of supporting a family; and in consequence, when bad seasons come, famine thins the ranks of a superabundant population. The arguments on the advantage of small farms receive in this country a practical confutation, and throughout there does not seem to prevail a due sense of the value of the division of labour. They have no poor-laws, yet scarcely is a beggar to be seen. Indeed on the subject of laws and taxation two passages must be quoted, which place the Chinese government in a very high point of view, compared even with the most enlightened ones of Europe.

‘It would far exceed the limits of the present work, were I to enter into a detail of their code of laws, which indeed I am not sufficiently prepared to do. They are published for the use of the subject, in the plainest characters that the language will admit, making sixteen small volumes, a copy of which is now in England; and I am encouraged to hold out a reasonable hope, that this compendium of the laws of China may, ere long, appear in an able and faithful English translation, which will explain, more than all the volumes that have hitherto been written on the subject of China, in what manner a mass of people, more than the double of that which is found in all Europe, has been kept together through so many ages in one bond of union. This work on the laws of China, for perspicuity and method, may justly be compared with Blackstone’s Commentaries on the Laws of England. It not only contains the laws arranged under their respective heads, but to every law is added a short commentary and a case.

‘I have been assured, on the best authority, that the laws of China define, in the most distinct and perspicuous manner, almost every shade of criminal offences, and the punishment awarded to each crime: that the greatest care appears to have been taken in constructing this scale of crimes and punishments; that they are very far from being sanguinary: and that if the practice was equal to the theory, few nations could boast of a more mild, and, at the same time, a more efficacious dispensation of justice. Of all the despotic governments existing, there is certainly none where the life of man is held so sacred as in the laws of China. A murder is never overlooked, except in the horrid practice of exposing infants: nor dares the emperor himself, all-powerful as he is, to take away the life of the meanest subject, without the formality at least of a regular process, though, as will be seen in the case of the late prime minister of Kien-Long, the chance of escaping must be very slender, where he himself becomes the accuser. So tenaciously however do they adhere to that solemn declaration of God delivered to Noah—“At the hand of every man’s brother will I require the life of man. Whoso sheddeth man’s blood, by man shall his blood be shed,”—that the good intention is oftentimes defeated by

requiring, as I have elsewhere observed, from the person last seen in company with one who may have received a mortal wound, or who may have died suddenly, a circumstantial account, supported by evidence, in what manner his death was occasioned.' p. 366.

If the Chinese subject is thus released from the vexation attending the intricate and voluminous codes of European law, he is in possession of another no less inestimable advantage :

' The amount of his taxes is ascertained. He is never required to contribute, by any new assessment, to make up a given sum for the extraordinary expences of the state, except in cases of rebellion, when an additional tax is sometimes imposed on the neighbouring provinces. But in general the executive government must adapt its wants to the ordinary supplies, instead of calling on the people for extraordinary contributions. The amount of the revenues of this great empire has been differently stated. As the principal branch, the land-tax, is paid in kind, it is indeed scarcely possible to estimate the receipt of it accurately, as it will greatly depend on the state of the crop. An emperor who aims at popularity never fails to remit this tax or rent, in such districts as have suffered by drought or inundation. Chou-ta-gin gave to lord Macartney, from the imperial rent-roll, a rough sketch of the sums raised in each province, making them to amount in the whole to about sixty-six millions sterling; which is not more than twice the revenue of the state in Great Britain, exclusive of the poor's rate and other parochial taxes, in 1803, and which gives, as I before observed, if reduced to a capitation, the sum of about four shillings for each individual, whilst that of Great Britain, by an analogous computation, would amount to about fifteen times that sum. I should suppose, however, that a shilling in China, generally speaking, will go as far as three in Great Britain.

' From the produce of the taxes the civil and military establishments, and all the incidental and extraordinary expences, are first paid on the spot where they are incurred, out of the provincial magazines, and the remainder is remitted to the imperial treasury in Peking to meet the expences of the court, the establishment of the emperor, his palaces, temples, gardens, women, and princes of the blood. The confiscations, presents, tributes, and other articles, may be reckoned as his privy purse. The surplus revenue remitted to Peking, in the year 1792, was stated to be about 36,000,000 ounces of silver, or 12,000,000l. sterling. It is a general opinion among the Chinese part of his subjects, that vast sums of the surplus revenue and such as arise from confiscations are annually sent to Moukden, the capital of Man-tchoo Tartary; but this should appear to be an erroneous opinion founded on prejudice. Notwithstanding the enormous wealth of Ho-tchung-tang, that filled the imperial coffers, the present emperor found it necessary the same year to accept an offering, as it was called, of 500,000 ounces of silver, or 166,666l. sterling, from the salt merchants of Canton, and sums of money and articles of merchandize from

other quarters, to enable him to quell a rebellion that was raging in one of the western provinces. He even sent down to Canton a quantity of pearls, agates, serpentines, and other stones of little value, in the hope of raising a temporary supply from the sale of them to foreign merchants. The emperor of China, therefore, has not so much wealth at his disposal as has usually been imagined. He even accepts of patriotic gifts from individuals, consisting of pieces of porcelain, silks, fans, tea, and such-like trifling articles, which afterwards serve as presents to foreign ambassadors, and each gift is pompously proclaimed in the Peking gazette.' p. 402.

(To be continued.)

ART. II.—*Original Correspondence of Jean Jacques Rousseau, with Mad. la Tour de Franqueville, and M. du Peyrou late Burgher of Neufchâtel. Translated from the French. 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Johnson. 1804.*

THE present is not an age which can be charged with want of curiosity in what relates to the literary characters by which it has been distinguished. Genius is every where traced to the closet and the fireside. This narrow inspection of illustrious personages, to which every reader presses forward with such eagerness, has had perhaps a beneficial effect by repressing that blind admiration, which, dazzled by the splendour of talent, is unable to discern its spots. Hence we learn to approve with judgment, and to praise with discrimination. But unfortunately the thirst of examining genius thus minutely, increases by indulgence without limit. At least thus much is certain, that it never has existed in a higher degree, and never has been more abundantly gratified than in the present day. This gratification may, however, be carried too far. When all the discriminating traits of character are exhausted, the strokes of the pencil cease to improve the portrait, and, when we have been repeatedly told how a man 'wrote and talked,' what remains but to inform us of many of those minutiae which serve rather to disgust than to please?

If this extreme minuteness may be carried too far in writing memoirs, much more may it in the publication of original correspondence. For in this case, superadded to other evils, is that of defeating its own purpose, and at the same time of doing away the unreserved 'flow of soul' which forms the principal charm of epistolary composition. The idea '*pingo posteris*,' that he is writing for posterity, will occur to the literary man, and blend itself in the most trivial concerns of life. Every idle word, spoken or written, will be a formal exhibition. He will be afraid of

writing without constraint to settle with his banker or his bookseller; and (what is the worst of all) in his letters to his nearest friends or relatives, instead of pouring forth the untaught language of the heart, he will be occupied in pointing conceits and rounding periods.

These remarks are not altogether inapplicable to the work, the translation of which is now before us. Many of Rousseau's letters contained in the latter series have been already published, and in them various paragraphs of a more trifling nature were omitted. These paragraphs are in the present publication restored, together with all the letters addressed to the same person, which complete the series; and though this completion of it was certainly desirable, yet in many instances we think the omitted passages might have still slept in the library of Neufchâtel without occasioning much regret to the reader, or any defect in the elucidation of the writer's life and character.

The correspondence before us consists, as the title-page announces, of two separate series of letters: the first containing those which passed between Rousseau and Mad. la Tour de Franqueville from the year 1761 to 1776; the latter, those addressed by Rousseau to his intimate friend M. du Peyrou, of Neufchâtel, between the years 1764 and 1771. The reason of their being published so long after the author's death is too tedious for us to detail. One thing we have to complain of, which is, that of the hundred letters to M. du Peyrou here presented to the public, not fewer than thirty-nine have appeared before among other letters published in one edition or another of the author's works, and are to be found translated into English in the last volume of his *Confessions* published in 1790. Nevertheless the French editor assures us in the preface with considerable effrontery, that *two* or *three* had been previously published, meaning in the collection of Rousseau's letters inserted in his works.

The correspondence with Mad. la Tour de Franqueville commences in a very singular manner. About thirty years of age when the correspondence begins, and married to an unworthy husband, she is complimented by a married female friend, who is like herself an enthusiastic admirer of Rousseau's works, with the title of Julia, a character in the *New Eloisa* to which she is supposed to bear a resemblance. The rest will be best explained by an extract from this friend's anonymous letter to Rousseau, which is the first of the series:

* As I can no longer defend my vanity, but by concealing myself, you will not be informed who I am; but this you will know, that Julia is not dead, and that she lives to cherish her affection for you. That she who writes to you is not Julia her style will soon

convince you. I am at most the cousin of that Julia, or rather, like Clara, her inseparable friend; and, if I have not the merit of that friend, I have at least her sentiments and zeal. I have insisted with the divine creature, who is my friend, that the soul of Julia lives in her frame; with the exception, however, of Julia's fault; and all who know how to estimate her maintain the same. This, from excess of modesty, she refuses to admit, and with a sublime candour, which but characterises her the more, assures us that to resemble Julia in every thing she would even have committed her fault; and that she is no otherwise sure of not committing such a fault than because no such man as St. Preux is to be found (supposing, however, she were not a married woman). I assured her I would tell you all she said; she set me at defiance; I keep my word: all this is the reason of my writing to you. If the step I have taken should appear to you absurd, so much the better: you must at least retract the kind-hearted Chaillot's argument to the charming Clara before you accuse me of downright extravagance. For the rest, believe of me as you please. I am a personage of no importance on the canvas that will be placed before you: I am but as one added to the list of your admirers, and one too whose suffrage is so unworthy of your consideration that you cannot but regard it with indifference. I return to my Julia, whom you certainly never thought to have any existence but in your brilliant and fertile imagination. Let me, however, convince you that you have sketched her correctly from my original—yes, feature for feature, as if you had known my Julia. The same sublimity of soul, the same delicacy, the same filial devotion, the same kindness to her dependents, by whom she is adored, the same sensibility for the unfortunate, the same strength of intellect, the same gracefulness of motion, the same accomplishments, the same sagacity, the same facility in conversation, and more than all this, the most perfect generosity of conduct towards a husband extremely different from Wolmar. You may rely with confidence on the woman who praises an individual of her sex, whose superiority, during an intimate friendship of ten years standing, she has constantly been sensible of. Julia, sir, exists; do not doubt it: why, I might ask, should you doubt it? A Rousseau exists; this no one doubts; and how is this less surprising than the other? This Julia, who nourishes a decided aversion for new acquaintances, is anxiously desirous to obtain yours. She scarcely dares to flatter herself that she shall obtain it; but she hopes that at least I shall be able to shew her an answer in your writing. This confidence is the only consideration that could have prevailed on her to allow me to speak of her to you. If you do not wish to disappoint her expectations, address your reply to whom? Ah! there's the difficulty! Your attention, I pray you. Your letter for me should be left blank on the outside, and then put into a cover directed to the Marchioness de Solar, au Parc aux Cerfs, Versailles. It will be faithfully forwarded to my hands. The marchioness could give you no account as to who I am, for she knows no more of me than

the person to whom I write, and of whom I have the honour to be, with all the sentiments he so well knows how to inspire, the very humble and obedient servant.

* * *

‘My husband knows and approves of this letter.’ Vol. I. p. 2.

The philosopher appears at first inclined to humour the joke, and sends an immediate answer, in which he certainly is as polite as the secrecy of his correspondent could lead her to expect. ‘To the editor of Julia (says he) you announce another Julia, a Julia who really lives, say you, and to whom you yourself are the living Clara! I am transported at this, both on account of your sex and my own; for, spite of what your friend may please to say, wherever there are Julias and Claras, there will not fail to be St. Preuxs also.’ This is followed up by a rejoinder from the fictitious Clara, accompanied by one from her friend, written not with quite the same air of sprightliness, but with more ease and grace.

‘I should be apprehensive’ (says she) ‘that you would think my claim unreasonable, if I had the intention of intruding more than once on the leisure that must necessarily be so valuable. But I passionately desire to be the possessor of a letter written with your hand; I will then importune you no more. Let not the termination of an intercourse I ought never to have begun, occasion you uneasiness:—Is it possible that to you any thing can be wanting? If Julia has really existed, you are yourself St. Preux: in this case, her memory is doubtless your sole occupation: if she is only the chef-d’œuvre of your imagination, take my advice, worship still the image you have set up; for the Creator has made no work so perfect as yours. Adieu, sir:—what the zeal of my Clara, with the view of raising me in your esteem, enabled you to understand of the conduct of my husband, compels me to conceal my name: I cannot name him, because I will not be his accuser: I believe you know him: I should therefore run the risk of depriving him of your esteem, a benefit of too great price for me to occasion him such an injury. You therefore will remain ignorant of who I am. For myself, I am content with your knowing that I entertain for you all the sentiments that can be derived from the conviction that your writings are the portrait of the soul, heart, genius, and character of their author.’ Vol. I. p. 15.

It is easy to perceive that the renunciation contained in this letter is only the language of her who would ‘not unsought be won.’ For, as these two letters unfortunately do not reach their destination, the ladies renew the attack, with many gentle reproaches on the philosopher’s silence. On the receipt of these last, he answers Clara not without some indications of choler at the trick (for such he suspects it to be) of the letter

from Julia, which he is positive must be the composition of a man; cautious, however, to leave a salvo by pronouncing that it is either that of a man or an angel. This paves the way for two more from the ladies, defending the rectitude and sincerity of their proceedings, and inclosing copies of the letters which had miscarried. Rousseau addresses his answer 'to the inseparables, be they men or women,' and insists with a good-natured raillery on knowing their names, on pain of dropping all intercourse with them. Thus the correspondence is kept up with considerable interest and spirit by all parties, until a letter from the gentleman, more than usually harsh and repulsive, determines Clara on relinquishing her share of the correspondence. From this time it is continued solely between Rousseau and Mad. la Tour de Franqueville, without the knowledge, it seems, of her friend. Rousseau discovers this in due time, and humorously lowers her title to that of Marianne. 'I will never bestow the names of Julia and of Clara on two women, one of whom has secrets from the other. For, if I understand the hearts of Julia and Clara, they were to each other perfectly transparent: concealment was utterly impossible between them: take my advice, be satisfied with the name of Marianne; and if Marianne be such a woman as I imagine, she has no right to complain of her lot.'

It must be acknowledged that this lady manages the whimsical temper of her idol with consummate dexterity. Unawed by continual repulses, she perpetually renews the assault, till she fairly triumphs over his heart. *Sir* and *madam* are by degrees rejected for 'dear Jean Jacques' and 'dear Marianne;' she sends him her miniature, describes her own person and countenance, and even pays him a visit during his stay in Paris. Her letters are conspicuous for that epistolary ease and delicacy peculiar to French letter-writers: they have a tenderness of sentiment and liveliness of expression that interest and attract on the most barren topics. What, for instance, can be more unpromising subjects than continual enquiries about her correspondent's health, complaints of his want of punctuality in writing, reproaches for coldness and reserve, explanations, compliments, with Terence's love-catalogue of

' — vitia, injuriæ,
Suspiciones, inimicitia, induciæ,
Bellum, pax rursum' ?

Yet on all these she writes not only with grace, but with an endless variety. She wears a thousand dresses, and she pleases in all. And it is not without justice that Rousseau in

one of his letters, after pleading ill-health and numerous troublesome occupations as an excuse for his silence, pays her the following well-turned compliment :

‘ Let me however remark that misfortune is always productive of some sort of good : to write to you oftener would no doubt afford me great delight, but then I should lose the pleasure of observing the prodigious variety and elegance of the phrases you use to reproach me with the infrequency of my letters, and the little resemblance they bear to each other. I never read one of your letters without thinking of the perfections I have caused you to display ; nor, on finishing, fail to pronounce myself blameless.’

Vol. I. p. 301.

As a specimen of the correspondence in general, of the citizen’s caprice and of the address of his fair idolatress, for she really is little less, we will give extracts from two or three successive letters, premising however that the latter had sent to Rousseau in a previous letter a copy of verses composed by herself, and containing his eulogium. To this he sends the following surly answer :

‘ I have no skill in commending the commendations addressed to me, nor in criticising verses of which I am the hero : disliking also to receive favours of a kind I have not solicited, you cannot surely be surprised that I should be backward with my thanks. I am heartily sick of letters, memorials, verses, eulogiums, criticisms, dissertations : all these require answers, and I should have at least a dozen hands and a dozen amanuenses. I can endure it no longer. Thus, madam, since whatever mode of conduct I adopt, you still persevere in requiring of me early answers, and are always mistress of the art to make them appear necessary, I intreat you will allow me to break off our correspondence with the same earnestness that under other circumstances I should have employed to urge its continuation.’ Vol. I. p. 167.

To this retort-courteous, Marianne replies as follows :

‘ You do not like, you say, that the officiousness of zeal should go beyond the bounds of what you ask. Do not, sir, believe me vain enough to imagine I suppose I have done you service by speaking in your praise. I am perfectly aware that no one so little as yourself stands in need of praise, and also that no praises so little as mine deserve to be considered as a benefit. I gave utterance to my thoughts ; and I shall ever think agreeably to that utterance, even should you think proper, with added superciliousness, again to reject the homage my admiration offers you. Of what moment is your conduct to me, compared with your virtues and your writings ? A genius like yours, vast and profound, engrossed by general views, would be dishonest to the universe in proportion to the attention it should bestow on a useless, solitary, worthless

being, like myself. To my last breath I shall respect your principles, esteem your writings, adore your talents, and cherish your person, without requiring from you any return. Adieu, sir. Excuse the length of this letter: nothing better recommends indulgence than the certainty that it will not again be required of us; and this you possess.' Vol. I. P. 174.

The Cynic philosopher softens in his next:

'Tu m'aduli, ma tu mi piaci. (Thou art a flatterer, yet I am pleased with thee.) I must surrender myself, madam: I am every day more convinced that it is in vain my heart endeavours to resist you: the more I resist the more I am entangled; and, by the manner in which you permit me to break off our correspondence, I perceive that you do not expect to be taken at your word. Yes, you are a woman; I know it by your ascendancy over my heart, by your address: it is a long time since I have entertained the least doubt of it. I relinquish the painful efforts I have made to break the cumbrous chains with which you wantonly have loaded me: but let me intreat you will yourself ease the burden; be no less compassionate than bewitching: accept my homage as an atonement for my negligence, and estimate with less rigour the proceedings of your slave.

'I was certainly to blame for mentioning to M. de Rougemont what I told you of M. du Terreaux; but the kind of reply you made to my request made me doubt if you would be prevailed on to acquaint his brother with the affair in question; and his knowing of it was quite necessary. This is not the excuse, but the motive of my conduct.

'I beg of you, madam, to rely implicitly on two things: the first is that, if you had observed toward me the silence I deserved of you, I should have taken especial care to have counteracted your purpose long before you could have consigned me to oblivion; and if you had used the least delay in writing to me, I should certainly have been the first to complain: further, that however your last letter has penetrated deeply into my heart, yet I almost regret that you did not leave me this opportunity of manifesting my eagerness and my contrition. The second object I would press on your belief, madam, is that at my age it is impossible to change one's habits, and therefore I cannot with sincerity promise you a stricter punctuality in future than that you have already experienced. Notwithstanding this, my heart is deeply sensible of your kindness, and zealous to shew itself worthy of it. This, madam, whether I write or not, you may always rely upon.' Vol. I. P. 175.

Another letter exhibits him in a still more amiable light, and shows that, with all his fluctuations of caprice, so long as he could believe a disinterested service to have been done to himself, ingratitude was not among his faults. During his residence at Bourgoin Mad. la Tour de Franqueville had published in Paris an anonymous paper in justification of his con-

duct. Rousseau, uninformed of the circumstance, instantly recognises the style of his fair advocate in the pamphlet which a friend had sent him, and thus expresses the warmth of his acknowledgments.

‘My heart can never cease to be full of your image: I did already cherish you for all the amiable qualities I observed in you; but a single service proceeding from genuine friendship will ever excite in me a sentiment more powerful than any other; a sentiment that neither time nor absence can weaken: and whether the remnant of my existence be short or long, you will be equally dear and respectable in my estimation to my latest sigh.’

Vol. II. P. 48.

Upon the whole, whoever reads this whole correspondence of Rousseau, free from outrageous prejudice, with due allowances for natural temperament irritated by long sickness, and alternately pampered by applause, and exacerbated by persecution and abuse, will feel himself moved rather to pity than anger at his pettish frowardness, his captiousness, and mistrust. For our own part we own that our regret preponderated over disgust, and we were more inclined to weep with Marianne than to resent with Clara. It is impossible to read these letters, and not to think of Martial’s ‘testy pleasant fellow:’

‘Difficilis, facilis,—jucundus, acerbus es idem;
Nec tecum possum vivere, nec sine te.’

Of the letters addressed by Rousseau to M. de Peyrou, which form the second series, we have already observed that more than a third part have, with the exception of a few not very interesting passages, already appeared, both in French and English. But this objection, as well as several others of a similar nature, attaches to the French editor, and not to the English work, which we hasten to consider as a translation. The translator, as it appears in her preface, is a female, and we hesitate not to say that she would not have disgraced her name by subjoining it to that of Mad. la Tour de Franqueville in the title-page, which is no light praise. The stiffness of exotic idiom is rarely to be detected, and, for the most part, had Rousseau been an Englishman, he would not have needed to blush at having written in the style of his translator. Some little oversights have escaped her, as using ‘you and I’ in the oblique case, with here and there similar inadvertences, venial perhaps in a letter. *Heloise*, when Anglicized, should, we think, be spelt not *Heloisa*, but *Eloisa*. In those letters, in which we have compared her translation with that of 1790, she seems to have advanced upon it considerably in elegance and correctness, if not in fidelity. When any poetry occurs,

she is less successful. The French verses composed for the purpose of being placed under Rousseau's portrait (Vol. II. p. 445) are translated in a note, neither very faithfully nor very well, into blank verse, in which the sense closes or at least pauses at the end of each line, a mode of versifying that has a very unpleasant effect upon the ear, whether it be in English blank verse or in Latin hexameters. We are sorry that the lady should have compromised her reputation by attempting what she is unequal to. Had she no judicious friend to consult, who would be candid enough to advise her not to print her verses? We will not hurt her feelings by quoting them.

Many letters in the latter series relate to the unfortunate quarrel between Rousseau and Hume. We believe the latter to have been innocent of the duplicities imputed to him by the former, and yet to Rousseau appearances must have been so much against him as in some degree to extenuate the bitterness of his resentment. We will not stir up these old disputes. Like the combatants themselves, '*composta quiescant*'!

Upon the whole we agree with the French editor that the letters which he presents to the public contain matter not merely for the gratification of general curiosity, but for the reflections of the enlightened and attentive student. Here is food for the skimmer of romances, and here is food for the investigator of mind. With all his whims and paradoxical extravagances, who can forbear to love and admire the 'citizen of Geneva'? It remains for us to emulate his bold originality of thought without running into his absurdities, to cherish his warmth and tenderness of heart without its caprices, and to exert his intrepidity and vigour in the defence of social order and of religion *pure and undefiled*.

ART. III.—*A short Account of the Cause of the Disease in Corn, called by Farmers the Blight, the Mildew, and the Rust. With two Plates. By the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, K. B. P. R. S. &c. 4to. 1803. (Not Sold.)*

IT is with peculiar propriety that the attention of philosophic observers is directed to agricultural researches on the means of remedying the diseases of corn, by the veteran chief of the first philosophical society in the world: a society to which all Christendom looks up with filial reverence, as the legitimate parent of true science and sound philosophy. It is a well-known fact that the Transactions of the Royal Society of

London have promulgated more *original* discoveries, have developed more of the laws of nature, and have united science with the arts more than all the other philosophical writings in the civilized world! Success cannot be doubted, when the worthy baronet who presides in the councils of this society, rouses the attention of five hundred of his friends by the present of the work before us.

During the last fifty years we have seen the most rapid and incredible improvements in all the different species of domestic cattle: but the cultivation of their food, in common with that of man, has not been equally improved, nor has the practicability of augmenting the fecundity of grasses and corn been sufficiently understood. It cannot, we think, be too earnestly inculcated, that we are yet ignorant of the earth's real fecundity, and of its improveable powers of production: doubtless both the quality and quantity of the best corn, in the most abundant harvest, may yet be augmented ten, nay even a hundred, fold. To a subject then so important as the preservation of the principal necessary of life, we turn with eager expectation.

'Botanists' (we are told) 'have long known that the blight in corn is occasioned by the growth of a minute parasitic fungus or mushroom on the leaves, stems, and glumes of the living plant. Felice Fontana published in the year 1767* an elaborate account of this mischievous weed with microscopic figures, which give a tolerable idea of its form; more modern botanists† have given figures both of corn and of grass affected by it, but have not used high magnifying powers in their researches.'

It is here said, with extreme inattention to facts, that all the agriculturists, except Mr. Kirby (Transactions of the Linnean Society), have neglected the discoveries of the botanists, in attempting to account for the cause of this evil. We have seen few modern systems of agriculture in which the microscopic observations of the Italian Fontana‡ are not mentioned; and we, as agriculturists, might retort the charge, by observing that the botanists have overlooked the experiments of Mr. Somerville, who ascribes the origin of this disease to great quantities of little insects, and who also founds his opinion on microscopic observations.

'On this account (the supposed ignorance of Fontana's discovery) it has been deemed expedient to offer to the consideration of farmers, engravings of this destructive plant, made

* *Observazioni sopra la Ruggine del Grano.*

† Sowerby's *English Fungi*, Vol. II.

‡ The French papers announce the death of this philosopher on the 10th of April last.

from the drawings of the accurate and ingenious Mr. Bauer, botanical painter to his majesty, accompanied with his explanation, from whence it is presumed an attentive reader will be able to form a correct idea of the facts intended to be represented, and a just opinion whether or not they are, as is presumed to be the case, correct and satisfactory.*

Of these 'facts,' or rather opinions, we shall endeavour to give an idea, without the engravings; but we fear they are neither very 'correct' nor very 'satisfactory.' The origin of blight is alledged to proceed from the seeds of a fungus gaining admission into the pores of the straw, 'that are shut in dry, and open in wet weather;' and that by germinating there, as is *supposed*, but not *demonstrated*, they intercept the sap that was intended by nature for the nutriment of the grain. The observations on the deleterious effects of this malady, treat a *local* disease as a *general* one, and would have been much better omitted. Ought not the philanthropist, armed with the authority of age, experience, and philosophy, to have paused, ere he gave data to all-grasping speculators, by speaking of a sack of blighted wheat not yielding a stone of flour? On reading this, who can withhold a tribute of thanks to the engraver,* who seasonably detained the distribution of opinions more dangerous from their authority than their foundation in fact. We do not however wish to deny the reality of this blight last season; but its existence is enough to excite philosophical research, without exaggerating the extent of its ravages.

It is acknowledged that 'no information of importance relative to the origin or the progress of the blight could be obtained:' of course, nothing has been added to the observations of Fontana, except a few conjectures not always very original or recondite. The following, we confess, surprized us not a little:

'This (the want of information) is not to be wondered at; for as no one of the persons applied to had any knowledge of the real cause of the malady, none of them could direct their curiosity in a proper channel. Now that its nature and cause have been explained, we may reasonably expect that a few years will produce an interesting collection of facts and observations, and we may hope that some progress will be made towards the very desirable attainment of either a preventive or a cure.'

'Explanation of the nature and cause of this evil.' (In other

* In the preface, the author apologizes for the late appearance of his work by the neglect of the engraver; but it is a poor subterfuge to make this delay, or the 'alarming state' of the late harvest, 'a sufficient apology for the want of actual observations on the origin and progress of the disease:' there is neither modesty nor dignity in such *finesse*.

words, the presumed natural history of this supposed parasitic plant.)

‘ It seems probable that the leaf is first infected in the spring, or early in the summer, before the corn shoots up into straw, and that the fungus is then of an orange colour*. After the straw has become yellow, the fungus assumes a deep chocolate brown; each individual is so small that every pore on a straw will produce from twenty to forty fungi, and every one of these will, no doubt, produce at least one hundred seeds; if then one of these seeds tillows out into the number of plants that appear at the bottom of a pore, how incalculably large must the increase be! A few diseased plants scattered over a field must very speedily infect a whole neighbourhood, for the seeds of fungi are not much heavier than air, as every one who has trod upon a ripe puff-ball must have observed by seeing the dust, among which is its seed, rise up and float on before him. How long it is before this fungus arrives at puberty, and scatters its seeds in the wind, can only be guessed at by the analogy of others; probably the period of a generation is short, possibly not more than a week in a hot season; if so, how frequently in the latter end of the summer must the air be loaded as it were with this animated dust, ready, whenever a gentle breeze, accompanied with humidity, shall give the signal, to intrude itself into the pores of thousands of acres of corn.’

The muse of Darwin himself could not have suggested any thing more fantastic! When will botanists leave the glittering poetic effusions of the imagination, for the language of reason and experience? Let us attend, however, to the discovery, which well merits to be placed with that ingenious doctor's theory of the winds†. What physiologist has before treated of animated dust? and by what hitherto-undiscovered law of hydrostatics or pneumatics has dust become more volatile or buoyant by humidity? But, in candour, for the same reason that we reject this voyage of dust, and the subsequent vegetable impregnation by means of atmospheric humidity, we must also reject the supposed generation of insects, proposed too upon microscopic observations by Somerville. We pass over the appropriate reflections on the goodness of Providence, to notice the more original observation, that notwithstanding the ravages of this disease, the price of wheat immediately after years of great blight, has been very considerably under the average price of five years. This fact, illustrated by the example of the years 1725 and 1797, ought to obviate

* This conjecture is incompatible with the sudden appearance of blight after a few days of foggy weather.

Since writing the above, the author has generously communicated his work to a respectable periodical Journal, with some additional notes, in which we had the mortification to find that even this supposition was borrowed from L'Abbé Tessier!!

REV.

† ‘ Castled on ice, beneath the circling Bear,
A vast & welcom' spits and swallows air.’

BOT. GARD.

the pretexts of speculators* for the present high prices of corn.

We are told that the blight in corn is not peculiar to the climate of the British Isles, but that it prevails in Italy, Sicily, and New South Wales. We can add, that we have not only seen it in Italy, but in several parts of Switzerland; in the low lands of Languedoc, Guyenne, and many other parts of France; in the provinces of Biscay and Grenada, and on the banks of the Ebro, Tagus, and Douro, in Spain and Portugal; in short, it prevails in every country where there are frequently thick wet fogs, or a very humid atmosphere. The influence of the barberry bush in causing this disease, ought to be more minutely examined: but the supposition 'that the fungus is brought into the field in a few stalks of infected straw uncorrupted among the mass of dung,' is sufficiently refuted by the subsequent confession, that the crops of the unmanured land were equally infected with those of the manured. Indeed, it is in contradiction to all that precedes: as, were it possible that it should be propagated in this manner, the dung being invariably covered with mould long before the leaves of the corn appear, the nidus of this plant must then be in the earth, and not, as supposed, in the pores of the straw and leaves of corn.

Sir Joseph boldly asserts, that

'Although the seeds of wheat are rendered, by the exhausting power of the fungus, so lean and shrivelled, that scarce any flour fit for the manufacture of bread can be obtained by grinding them; these very seeds will, except, perhaps, in the very worst cases†, answer the purpose of seed-corn as well as the fairest and plumpest

* 'The spring wheat of Lincolnshire was not in the least shrivelled this year; though the straw was in some degree infected: the millers allowed that it was the best sample brought to market. Barley was in some places considerably spotted, but as the whole of the stem of that grain is naturally enveloped in the hose or basis of the leaf, the fungus can, in no case, gain admittance to the straw.'

† 'Eighty grains of the most blighted wheat of the last year, that could be obtained, were sown in pots in the hot-house; of these seventy-two produced healthy plants, a loss of 10 per cent. only.' Does the right hon. president mean to establish, from this hot-house experiment, a rule for farmers? Does he count for nought the influence of light and heat on the process of germination? To render this experiment of any practical importance, grains of plump and blighted wheat should have been sown in pots of similar dimensions, and the quantity of flour which the respective ears produced, correctly weighed, to determine which was the most productive. From the analogy both of the animal and vegetable kingdom, we should declare the plump or healthy seed the most productive. The field, however, and not the hot-house, is the sphere for these experiments; as, most probably, an extra portion of heat is necessary to make blighted wheat vegetate. Good wheat will germinate in a day, or in seven, eight, or more days, according to the quality and temperature of the soil; in the latter case, we suspect that putrefaction instead of germination would take place in blighted wheat, some instances of which we have incidentally observed in granaries.

sample that can be obtained, and in some respects better; as a bushel will contain one-third at least more grains, and three bushels will go as far as four of large grain. The use of the flour of corn is to nourish the minute plant from the time of its development till its roots are able to attract food from the manured earth, for which purpose one-tenth of a grain of good wheat is more than sufficient. The use of plump samples for seed is unnecessary waste, as the smallest grains, such as are given to the poultry, will be found to answer the purpose of propagating the sort from whence they sprung.

Before we venture to recommend this plan to general practice, it will be necessary to make a great variety of experiments in different soils and seasons, and that the results should be decisive beyond the possibility of doubt, respecting the positive utility of the adoption of such a measure; otherwise, the consequences might be too serious to be coolly anticipated. Admitting that one-tenth of a grain of good wheat may be sufficient for the purpose of germination (although this one-tenth is better than the whole of a bad grain), yet it is not certain that the plant will be equally strong and productive at the time of harvest. We fear the contrary will be found the case; and we have repeatedly seen the fatal effects of sowing bad seed for clover, flax-seed, &c. Add to this, that however the one-tenth may 'nourish the minute plant from the time of its development till its roots are able to attract food from the manured earth,' as far as relates to the quantity of gluten, yet the entire vegetable earth of which all seeds are composed, seems no less essential to the progress of fructification. This vegetable earth indeed appears to form the connecting medium between the plant and common earth: in other words, it serves the purpose of the stomach in digesting and assimilating the aliments of the plant to their proper vessels and juices. If this be the fact, any diminution of the earthy matter must be finally injurious to fructification. It may be observed also that the vegetation of seeds is different in this respect from that of roots, which fructify by section. It is indeed from the chemico-agriculturist, and not the botanist, that we should expect the illustration of this interesting point, by a series of well-conceived experiments, in which the agency of alkalis, acids, gases, light, &c. would be correctly investigated. The observations of Humboldt on this subject (in part refuted by Saussure and Berthollet) are more the result of theory and imagination than such as are admissible into practical philosophy.

With regard to the cause of blight here assigned, we regret that the few facts adduced are such as a sense of our duty to the public compels us to say are not 'satisfactory.' Our read-

ers will, doubtless, perceive that we are fully aware of the importance of the enquiry to farmers and *agrinomes*; but to enter into a detail of even our own observations would carry us to too great a length. We could have wished indeed that sir Joseph had condescended to make us more particularly acquainted with his own experiments; that he had mentioned the magnifying powers of his glasses; that he had pointed out some probable cause of the misconceptions of other observers with the microscope; that he had not taken the observations of Fontana for established truths; and that he had presented us with an abstract of the means hitherto taken to prevent the existence, or impede the progress, of this formidable disease. With these additions the work might have been of great practical utility; whereas in its present state, it can only serve at most to stimulate the researches of philosophers; and it, perhaps, still remains to be determined by unobjectionable experiments, whether the disease called blight in corn be occasioned by a parasitic plant, according to Fontana and sir Joseph, or by vegetable tumors, the consequence of deranged circulation, as ingeniously suggested by Dr. Home, although overlooked by our author. An attentive investigation of its origin renders the latter opinion extremely probable. It is well known that the humidity of the atmosphere in every country is the great predisposing cause of blight; but humidity alone is not sufficient, unless accompanied by a certain degree of cold, which is, doubtless, produced often by evaporation, and perhaps too by absorption. These facts, while they remove all grounds of belief that blight is caused by insects or animalcules, humidity and cold being inimical to their generation, are not less adverse to the opinion of its being a vegetable production. If humidity and cold be injurious, as they are well known to be, to the maturation of fruits, they cannot be less so to the vegetation of the tender seeds of a parasitic plant. The nature of the only remedies which have been hitherto discovered for this evil, tends also to confirm our opinion. Seed-wheat steeped from twelve to twenty-four hours in solutions of arsenic or of lime, has been preserved from blight, perhaps by the exsiccating qualities of these substances, or by their action communicating to the straw the power of resisting the absorption, or too rapid evaporation of humidity, and thus impeding the deleterious generation of cold. The disease in rye, however, called by the French *argot*, from its resemblance to horn, is evidently the effect of insects, as the straw is not discoloured, and it is not uncommon to find small worms in the blighted or blackened ears. Its ravages are often very considerable in the southern provinces of France, and in districts of Spain, where a shower

will scarcely fall during an interval of twelve or even eighteen months. It is true we have also seen in tolerably dry climates some slight traces of blight, similar to that which exists in England, but always in cases where the great quantities of small crystals of nitre on the surface of the soil might be instrumental in producing cold to an injurious degree.

Here, however, we must stop; though the importance of a subject that treats of the primary necessities of life, the increase of flour, and consequent reduction in the price of bread, may be our apology for having treated it so much at length. In animadverting freely on the opinions of so distinguished a character, we shall, perhaps, incur censure; but as critics we know nothing of the man—it is to his work only we attend; as men, we have too high a respect for his learning and virtues to insult him by vulgar praise. Influenced, perhaps, by the same motives as the author, we have offered some hints to invite discussion; and should these hints, or those of sir Joseph Banks, tend to stimulate the industry of philosophers, and lead eventually to a knowledge of some specific remedy for this evil, our most earnest desires will be accomplished. We shall only add, that our author's style is fluent, harmonious, and animated; but occasionally wanting in philological precision, arising, perhaps, from a desire of being popular. Of the present rage for writing works of science in a popular manner, we deem it our duty to withhold our approbation: *c'est un peu trop à la Française*, and it has already contributed no little to the prevalence of quackery in almost every department. In barbarous ages discoveries might be made by unlettered persons; but in the present state of civilization, it is idle to suppose that any important improvement will be made in the arts or sciences, by persons unacquainted with what has been previously attempted.

ART. IV.—*Tales from the Russian of Nicolai Karamsin.* 8vo. 6s. Baards. Johnson. 1804.

SOME years ago the public were presented with a collection of Russian tales under the mock title of Travels into Russia; since that they have been transported with the German dramatist into Siberia; and more lately they have strolled over the continent with the mild and pleasant Muscovite, Karamsin, with whose further effusions they are now favoured, in an English dress. How little could Virgil foresee such a *usus natura* as the birth of a sentimentalist in that savage country where

‘Gens effræna virum Riphæo tunditur Euro!’

Puzzling indeed is the paradox of a Russian in a perpetual thaw; whose excess of feeling shames even Asiatic softness; who dissolves in all the luxury of grief, and riots in all the extravagance of constitutional enthusiasm; who confesses (page 8 of the present publication), 'My heart is susceptible of all the softer emotions. I love to dwell on subjects which arrest my feelings,—and my soul continues the indulgence till a flood of tears breaks the charm.'

The model of this author is that strange compound, Sterne; a humourist who has perverted the heads of 'many men, many women, and many children.' How far he has succeeded in the present instance, will be shown by a few short extracts from the silly pages of this unnecessarily-acknowledged imitator. But we will first whisper a few words in the ear of his English translator, who tells us these tales have been much admired by 'the continent;' were we not ashamed of punning, we might with truth say, 'the *incontinent*;' for they are grossly voluptuous, or, as M. Karamsin probably would phrase it, full of 'delicate sensibility.'—But to our translator. We are sorry for the taste of 'the continent;' and for his too, as an Englishman, when he writes such nonsense as the following:

'With what enthusiastic fervor does he (M. Karamsin) embrace any opportunity of applying some sentiment of his favourite Sterne! How rapturously does he exclaim, when at Berlin, with Tristram! 'Yes! good-natured Shandy, nothing is so sweet as liberty!' How, when at Zurich, does he express his disappointment at hearing a sermon of Lavater, because it was not, as he had wished it, in the manner of Sterne. How transported does he express his anxiety, when at Calais, to visit the tomb of Lorenzo! how humorously does he, on his arrival in London, observe at the first instance in his lodgings, 'I found a pair of black silk breeches, such as Sterne set out with for France.' What satisfaction does he express, during his stay in London, at being able to go out to a neighbouring village, and hear a sensible sermon in the popular manner of Yorick; and how just are his remarks, in the Tale of Flor Silin, about Westminster Abbey!'

These remarks are as follow:

'The most celebrated nation in Europe has consecrated a magnificent abbey to the memory of great men, whose talents have been the admiration of the world. I never entered this building without awe, and uncovering my head; but I should approach, with enthusiastic veneration, a temple sacred to philanthropy, and, in such a temple, noble Flor Silin, thou wouldst occupy the foremost niche.'

If, upon a re-perusal of his own observations upon the merit of Karamsin, and of the passage above quoted, as a proof of that merit, this translator does not see the absurdity of his friend and himself, we shall not stop to shoot arrows against a brick wall.

We have said these Tales are indecent: it is necessary to substantiate the charge; but, not to pollute our pages with transcribing such indications of a debauched taste, we refer those to whom this notice will be a temptation to read the book, to page 44.

The next tale, 'Flor Silin,' is merely foolish; as the remark about Westminster abbey has sufficiently demonstrated. From that of 'Natalia' we select the following passage:

'Such was the life of the daughter of the Bojar, till she attained her seventeenth year. The circling seasons had again brought the spring—all nature was joyous—the verdure again visited the meadows, and the merry songsters of the air opened their little throats in wild melody,—when Natalia, one morning, as she sat at her bow window, amusing herself with observing the playful frolics of the various birds which sported round her, perceived, for the first time, that they always moved in pairs—sat on the branch, in pairs,—chirping soft tales of gallantry;—and then,—in pairs,—flew away to hide themselves in the foliage of some tree, whose laden boughs, of nature's loveliest green, served as the secret grove, to celebrate their loves.

'This discovery produced a strange revolution in the thoughts of poor Natalia.' P. 104.

This is evidently taken from the scene in the 'Sentimental Journey' where Yorick watches the pairing of the two sparrows; but it was left for the delicacy of a Russian 'man of feeling' to describe a woman so employed.

But it is not only from Sterne that M. Karamsin borrows; he is not ashamed of copying the affected modesty, but real indecency, of Smollett's description of Roderick Random's marriage with Narcissa. 'Let me draw a veil over the chaste mysteries of Hymen,' says Smollett. 'The mysteries of love are sacred and impenetrable; modesty drops the veil of concealment on wedded rites, and the hushed lip does not even utter what it feels,' says Karamsin. Are we to endure such vicious stuff as this; and be told it is admired on the continent, and the author placed upon a level with Marmontel and Florian? It may be so: 'Tota cohors tamen est inimica, omnesque manipuli.'

We have judged for ourselves, and could with ease dwell upon the subject; but we shall feel satisfied that we have esta-

blished our most important charge against M. Karamsin, that of 'nourishing the pruriency of the debauched' as Mr. Godwin well expresses it, if, in addition to the above proofs, we refer the reader to page 239, in the tale of 'Julia.'

From page 134 we shall make a short extract:

'There is a critical moment in the calendar of love, and its power is infinite. Native coyness yields to the claims of sensibility, while the bewitching rapture, which lip to lip communicates, intoxicates the senses—it lulls the rigid guardians of a maiden's fears to sleep—but it does not affect the more sterling purity of the heart—and the conscious blush which follows the enjoyment, chastens the bliss.'

Admirable moralist, who thinks a blush an ample atonement for criminality!

It would be easy to wanton in the field of ridicule, which these foolish and indecent tales so temptingly afford; but never, when an author is or ought to be of no reputation, and writes upon trivial matters (such as his own character, travels, or observations), will we mangle him for the barren amusement of our readers, or from the vain wish of displaying our own ingenuity. We disdain an inglorious triumph over these *Αχαλίδες* of literature; these

'Phyllides, Hypsipelæ, vatum et plorabile siquid!'

they shall not receive the consolation of our notice:

'neque enim memorabile nomen

Fœmineâ in panâ est, nec habet victoria laudem.'

Concerning M. Karamsin we shall only add, that the continued gratification of his silence would meet our wishes more than the transient pleasure of correcting any of his future follies.

ART. V.—*The Powers of Genius: a Poem, in three Parts.*
By John Blair Linn, A. M. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Williams.
1804.

THERE is not a more delightful province in the regions of literature, than the application of philosophy to matters of taste. It affords a pleasing picture of that mutual connection which exists between all the different branches of liberal science. Reason, in her full maturity, retracing the fairy visions of youth when fancy and passion divided the empire of

the mind, and investigating the delicate principles of the pleasure we derive from objects grand, new, or beautiful, presents a sweet and soothing image to the mind. Nor is the contemplation of the principles of taste and genius less agreeable, when poetry, taking her turn again, throws aside the dry abstract treatise, and serves them up in the form of a didactic poem, seasoned with episodes, and garnished with the flowers of fancy. Witness the didactic works on poetry, of Horace, Vida, and Boileau; Pope's 'Art of Criticism;' Akenside's 'Pleasures of the Imagination;' with divers other works of the same kind that might be mentioned.

At the rear of this mighty phalanx follows the author of 'the Powers of Genius,' and (we will venture to add) not without symptoms of having imbibed a considerable portion of those powers which he describes, though not unblemished by marks of (what indeed the author professes) 'the haste, eagerness, and rashness of youth.' Mr. Linn will doubtless be surprised at finding himself ranked so high: we have made great allowances, greater perhaps than are strictly permissible to critics, for his youth; such is our wish to give encouragement to rising genius. But he must not presume upon our forbearance; there is room for much amendment, which we shall expect to find if ever he comes before us again, and without which he will not meet that indulgence which we now feel disposed to shew him.

Prefixed to the poem is a short preface, containing a few trite remarks on the qualifications necessary to the didactic poet, a list of those few who have shone principally in this line of poetry, and a closing petition—'May I hope to be heard?'

To the text of the poem are subjoined pretty copious notes, 'to explain passages which may be doubtful, and to support general assertions which may require some confirmation.' At the end is a long note on the subject of American literature, which the author, who is himself a native of that country, treats with a partial, but amiable zeal.

'I shall not attempt' (says he) 'to conceal the enthusiasm which I feel for meritorious performances of native Americans; nor can I repress my indignation at the unjust manner in which they are treated by the reviewers of England. America, notwithstanding their aspersions, has attained an eminence in literature, which is, at least, respectable. Like Hercules in his cradle, she has manifested a gigantic grasp, and discovered that she will be great.'

This he proceeds to elucidate, or rather asserts in general terms, in respect to politics, law, mathematics, ethics, divinity, history, and poetry.

'Beneath our skies, fancy neither sickens nor dies. The fire of poetry is kindled by our storms. Amid our plains, on the banks of our waters, and on our mountains, dwells the spirit of inventive enthusiasm. These regions were not formed only to echo to the voice of Europe; but from them shall yet sound a lyre which shall be the admiration of the world.'

We sincerely hope that this gentleman's auguries may be realized, and, when they are, we promise (for ourselves at least) that our trans-Atlantic brethren shall not be 'treated in an unjust manner.' 'Tros Tyriusve mihi nullo discrimine agetur.'

After the above note follows an appendix, occupying thirty-seven pages, and containing quotations from Isaiah, the book of Job, the Psalms, the song of Moses in Exodus, Milton's Paradise Lost and Regained, Pope's Homer, Shakspeare, Ossian, Sotheby's Wieland's Oberon, and from the prose works of Milton, Barrow, Gray, Johnson, Young, Bossuet, Sherlock, and Massillon, as illustrations of genius, which according to Mr. Linn can be made known only by its effects. We do not conceive that much benefit accrues to literature from these vague and indefinite praises bestowed upon select passages of celebrated authors. Addison brought this mode of criticism into vogue by his commendations of the Paradise Lost, and an admirable effect they had by directing the public taste to a sense of the beauties of that poem. But times are altered; a taste for composition has since then pervaded all ranks of either sex; the stream of science, if it has not deepened its channel, has expanded its surface; and the question in which we feel an interest, is transferred from feeling to art. It is no longer asked, *what* is commendable in a composition, but *why* it is so.

The style of Mr. Linn's prose is by no means happy. It abounds too much in the 'vibrantes sententiolæ, et melliti verborum globuli.' A series of short pointed asseverations soon tire the ear, and require the matter of a Seneca or a Montesquieu not to disgust by their dogmatical air. But who can bear to be told by a modern in this *ipse dixit* strain, how in his estimation Shakspeare had some powers of invention, Milton learning, and Burns sensibility? This method of apportioning praise in notes is becoming vastly fashionable, and deserves reprehension. We would recommend it to these *soi-disant* critics, to weigh well the following words of Longinus:

Ἡ τῶν λόγων κρίσις πολλῆς ἐστὶ πείρας τελευταῶν ἐπιγέννημα.

This author is frequently guilty of that violation of English

idiom, so common in the north of England, which consists in using *will* with a pronoun of the first person to express a future event independent on volition. This error occurs in the following pages: ix, 7, 14, 19, 121. In one passage we have *shall* for *will*, an extraordinary inadvertency from the pen of an *American*: 'The author *shall* not supplicate the candour or indulgence of any individual, &c.' page xv. And, now that we are on the subject of grammar, we will just notice that *underwent* is used for *undergone*, page 60 note; that *either* is applied in the sense of *any one*, page 101; and that 'where are ye fled, &c.' should strictly be 'whither are ye fled,' page 144.

Hitherto our remarks have been chiefly verbal and confined to the preface, design, notes, and appendix. In the poem itself we have to complain first that Genius is made a female by Mr. Linn:

'Genius we know by *her* impetuous force.'

This line, which is the third from the beginning of the poem, we quote in preference to many others, because the very attribute, assigned to Genius in it, should have suggested to the writer the impropriety of making it of the softer sex. Is not *impetuous force* evidently one of the '*propria quæ maribus*?'

The poem itself seems not to have been written with any fixed or systematic plan. The subjects touched upon follow one another without any other order apparently than that of casual suggestion in the writer's mind. He does not meddle in any degree with the metaphysical part of his subject, nor does he propose or defend any particular theory. Indeed his subject is chiefly of use to him as a vehicle for his remarks on the appropriate excellences of different writers, particularly poets; and it must be acknowledged that he gives us their characteristic traits with a bold and spirited pencil. Still, whatever be the end of poetry in its other branches, that of didactic poetry is clearly and avowedly to instruct. Mr. Linn tells us as much in his preface. But we would ask him, what does his poem teach us? That Homer and Virgil wrote well? we answer that we knew this before. That literature passed from Greece to Rome? we knew it before. Surely from a poem entitled 'the Powers of Genius,' it is not unreasonable to look for some luminous and definite observations on the progress and culture of those powers, some fixed points of view from which we may contemplate them, and some precepts for their improvement. But genius, it seems, is indefinable and indeterminate. The only rule is, 'catch where you can;' and all else is—'*fortemque Gyan, fortemque Cleanthum.*'

But it is time to lay before the reader an extract from the poem. We select the lamentation of the outcast Genius :

‘ As late I roam’d the Hudson’s banks along,
What time the night-bird pour’d his gloomy song :
What time the moon threw her ascending beam
O’er Night’s dark bosom and the wizard stream ;
I heard this strain—(it now no longer flows,
Peace to the ashes of a man of woes!)
Here on this beaten rock, O let me rest!
Breathe thou damp gale upon my throbbing breast!
Roll on bold river, let me hear thee rave,
I love the music of thy silver wave,
Long years have flown since I, a careless boy,
Plung’d in thy waters with a boisterous joy.
Now worn with care, to every joy unknown,
I seek thy shades unpitied and alone.
In early youth my steps were led astray
From gain’s proud temple by the Muse’s lay ;
From crowded streets and busy throngs I fled
Where woodland-scenes and quiet vallies spread.
Fair nature’s haunts unwearied I explored,
Where sang the stream, where falling waters roar’d.
A fond enthusiast on the mountain’s brow,
I heard the echo babble from below.
I lov’d the dingle and the tangled dell,
And crept with silence to her hermit-cell.
Nature I lov’d, when cloth’d in mildest charms
She lur’d sweet quiet to her fondling arms.
I lov’d her more when with her clouds o’ercast,
She hove the ocean with her yelling blast,
When thunders roll’d from her creator’s hand,
Burst from the skies and shook the wondering land—
I heard entranc’d the Grecian’s epic-strain,
Enraptur’d listen’d to the Mantuan swain ;
Rov’d through the mazes of poetic lore,
And sigh’d to think the muse had told no more.
Ye bards of old, why did my infant days
Become enchanted with your golden lays ?
Why did I listen to the trump of fame
Which sounded glory on the poet’s name ?
Why did I flee the bloody fields of war,
Nor meet contention at my country’s bar ?
Behold the trophies which I now have won,
My works neglected and myself undone.
In place of fame—yon little cottage-shed
Spreads its low shelter on my humbler head,
There buried deep from every human eye,
Unknown, unpitied, ever let me lie.
May no one come to shed the thrilling tear,
And say, Eugenio liv’d and perish’d here.

Farewell cold world, farewell thou pallid beam,
 Farewell to hope and every flattering dream.
 Soon shall Eugenio's solitary grave
 Give peace and comfort which ye never gave.
 —Grant me, O God! my shelter and my stay,
 Peace which the world can never take away—
 Forgive my errors, all my sins forgive,
 And in thy mansions, father, let me live.' P. 70.

Perhaps the third line of the above extract would be more correctly expressed thus :

'What time the moon ascending threw her beam.'

The moon ascends, but her beam upon the water descends. This reminds us of a line in the character of madame Genlis, page 44, which is in other respects well-drawn :

'Rove by the glimpses of pale Luna's beam.'

We recommend it to poets possessed of such powers of poetical diction as Mr. Linn, to leave Sol and Luna to enlighten the enigmatists of the Lady's Diary, and to content themselves with the humble appellations of sun and moon. '*Solemque suum, sua sidera norint.*'

At the conclusion of the poem there is a strange confusion of the Genius of Columbia with the mental power personified. After saying

'The Genius of our seat
 Descends on wings of air ;'

he concludes with this couplet :

'Thus *Genius* spoke—express'd a parent's prayer;
 Rose on the clouds, and melted into air.'

Surely this is an error of the press for '*The Genius spoke,*' &c.

Upon the whole, we look upon the Powers of Genius as a poem possessed of no ordinary merit. It is far from perfect ; but it is raised far above the sing-song nothings of the present day, and we hope will prove the earnest of greater things. Let the author fix his eye stedfastly on those great models whom he praises so well. Let him despise such epithets as *musical*, and other similar ones. Let him in short beware of being enticed by the charms of quaintness under the garb of novelty. He already possesses a brilliant fancy and a rich flow of metaphor. His language is graceful and nervous, and, with a few exceptions, correct. The cadence of his verse discovers an ear that can feel the effect of varied and appropriate harmony. The following four verses on Ariosto will testify this :

'When knights and war he sings and war's alarms,
He speaks in terror, like the god of arms;
But when Angelica's soft charms he sings,
An angel's pinions sweep his trembling strings.' p. 20.

We certainly could pick out many very weak lines to set over-against these. But we will not enter on this invidious task, when the great majority of good ones evince that the author may safely be referred to his own ear for the proscription of the bad.

A few miscellaneous pieces of unequal merit conclude this little volume. A midnight hymn, and a picture of morning, shew that Mr. Linn, like many other good rhymers, fails in the modulation of blank verse. In the last piece, which is entitled 'an Epistle to a Friend with the Poem of the Powers of Genius,' occurs an execrable rhyme: 'deride—describe.' Though we have already swelled this article to a very disproportionate length, we cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of transcribing 'an Address to my Taper,' which is simple and not inelegant. The third line of the second stanza wants a syllable, as it is printed. We presume that *loud* is an error of the press for *loudly*, and have corrected our copy accordingly.

'My taper lend thy glimmering ray,
O give me all thy little light!
Departed is the orb of day,
And o'er the city falls the night.

'The bustle of the passing throng,
The chariot-rattling by the door,
The loudly boisterous vender's song,
Strike on my startling ear no more.

'Now gathering storms the sky o'erspread,
And sweep with ruffian-blasts the plain,
Now on my window and my shed,
Descends the chill and beating rain.

'Protected from the angry sky,
Bless'd with the smile of kind repose,
Still may I know compassion's sigh,
And keenly feel for others woes.

'On such a night old legends tell,
(While lowering clouds the sky o'ercast,)
Aerial beings pour their yell,
And spread their pinions to the blast.

'On such a night did Shakespeare hear
His Ariel singing his wild strains,
On such a night his listening ear
Heard spirits chaunting on the plains.

‘ O then, on this enchanting page,
My taper, throw thy friendly beam—
And let me mark the long-past age;
And rove along Ilyssus’ stream.

‘ O let me catch that matchless song,
Which comes from old Achaia’s lyre,
And wafted to the Olympic throng,
Bask in the blaze of Pindar’s fire.

‘ How fast thy slender form decays !
Still, still a little longer stay :
Now in the socket falls thy blaze—
It flutters, and it dies away.

‘ How like thy dim and dying flame,
The sons of genius and of lore !
Whose souls too ardent for their frame,
Burn till their pulse can beat no more.’ P. 135.

ART. VI.—*The Principles of Currency and Exchange, illustrated by Observations upon the State of the Currency of Ireland, the high Rates of Exchange between Dublin and London, and the Remittances of Rent to Irish Absentees.* By Henry Parnell, Esq. 8vo. 4s. Budd. 1805.

ART. VII.—*Thoughts on the alarming State of the Circulation, and of the Means of redressing the pecuniary Grievances, of Ireland.* By the Earl of Lauderdale. 8vo. 4s. Longman. 1805.

THE state of Ireland as to its circulating paper, its specie, and current coin, and the exchange between that part of the united kingdom and Great Britain, having lately become the subject of minute investigation, particularly before a committee of the house of commons, much curious and interesting information has been collected, leading in a commercial and political point of view to most important consequences. The ‘Thoughts’ of lord Lauderdale appear to be suggested entirely by the report of the committee. Mr. Parnell has the merit of having offered his sentiments to the public in a former edition, previous to the production of the report. The present edition, in its improved and enlarged state, is well calculated to elucidate this intricate subject, and both from its manner and matter must be more generally useful than the ‘Thoughts’ of his lordship. The facts upon which different opinions have been founded, are thus generally stated by the noble lord.

‘ That, since the restriction of payments in cash in the year

1797, the circulation of the bank of Ireland has increased from six hundred thousand pounds to three millions :

‘ That a difference has existed and continues to exist, between the value of gold and bank paper :

‘ That the nominal exchange between London and Dublin has risen from 106l. 7s. 1d. the average of three months, ending in December 1797, to 116l. 3s. 7d. the average of three months, ending March 1804 :

‘ That gold has disappeared from circulation, except in the northern parts of Ireland ; and that the silver coin has gradually been displaced by small paper notes (technically termed silver notes), or by a base coinage, the best shillings of which may be worth about sixpence, and the sixpence worth about three-pence.’

P. 8.

These facts, with their calamitous consequences, are further illustrated by Mr. Parnell :

‘ We see in the short period of six years and eleven months, that currency depreciated in its value 10 per cent ;—the rate of exchange between Dublin and London, during exactly the same period, advanced from an average below par to even 19 per cent. against Dublin in its trade with England, and to 24 per cent. in its trade with foreign countries ;—the issues of bank paper during the same precise period increased from 621,917l. to 2,911,628l.—the landed property of the kingdom diminished in its annual value 10 per cent. ;—the property of the widow, the annuitant, of every person deriving their means of living from fixed stipends, reduced in the same degree ;—a violation, in fact, effected, of all pecuniary contracts made previous to the restriction, and a further violation unavoidable of all that have been made since that period, whenever the restriction is removed ;—the prices of labour increased without making the poor man richer ;—the prices of the foreign materials of manufacture, and of foreign articles of prime necessity, greatly augmented ; the exertions of industry incumbered by heavy charges ; and the profits of trade, the property of the landlord, the speculations of the farmer, sometimes benefited, sometimes injured, at all times depending upon the free will and uncontrolled authority of the bank directors. We see them at their pleasure fixing the assize of property ; and, though a body unknown to the constitution, exhausting that property to a greater degree than the king, lords, and commons, to whom alone the constitution grants a power of interfering with the property of the subject, could exhaust it by the most oppressive taxes.’ P. 63.

The object of lord Lauderdale’s observations is to shew :
1, That the difference existing between the value of gold and the paper of the bank of Ireland, arises from the depreciation of the latter : 2, That the increase of bank paper is the sole cause of its depreciation : and 3, That the reduction of the quantity of bank paper is the only remedy for the existing evil.

It appears most extraordinary, and can no otherwise be accounted for than by an extreme unwillingness to acknowledge the truth, that so many gentlemen of respectability before the committee should refuse their assent to the proposition that the paper of the bank of Ireland has been depreciated. The arguments drawn from its comparative value with bullion and other commodities, and from the rates of exchange, place the fact beyond the possibility of doubt.

The same gentlemen of course were under the necessity of accounting for the high rate of exchange by taking it for granted that the balance of debt, including all commercial and pecuniary transactions, was against Ireland, and against her in a sufficient degree to produce the existing unfavourable effects; whereas it appears, upon the clearest evidence, that such a supposition is not only altogether erroneous, but that from a statement of the balance of debt the exchange ought to have been in favour of that country. In fact, the depreciation of the Irish paper currency, however unpleasant to the feelings of the Irish bank directors, whose conduct has been justly called in question, accounts in the most satisfactory manner for the fluctuations and rise in the rate of exchange.

The nature of exchange, and the effects produced upon it by variations in the value of currency, are explained by Mr. Parnell with much conciseness and perspicuity :

‘ The par of exchange between different countries, is the comparison of the value of their respective currencies ; when these currencies are of permanent value, a permanent per-centage will express the par of their mutual exchange of currency. Thus, whilst guineas were the standard of the value of English and Irish currencies, the fixed and acknowledged par of exchange was $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. being the exact difference between the number of pounds, shillings, and pence, contained in a guinea, in the regulated currency of Ireland and in that of England. According to this definition, if after any fixed par of exchange has been fixed between two countries, the currency of either country shall have become of a greater or less value, the variations in the rates of exchange above or below par will necessarily depend upon, and be in proportion to, the variation in the value of the currency ; and therefore it may be inferred, in perfect consistency with the strictest rules of logic, that any circumstances which alter the value of currency must, *ex vi termini*, alter the par and rates of exchange. Thus, if a practice of debasing coin had at any time become so general, as to diminish the value of all the coin in circulation in Ireland, 10 per cent. whilst at the same time no such practice existed in England, it would be evident that $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. would not express the par of exchange between England and Ireland ; the par, under the new circumstances of the Irish currency, would be exactly $18\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. But if, instead of the coin having been debased, it had dis-

appeared, and a currency of paper been introduced in its place, of a value less than that of the currency of specie by 10 per cent. it is equally evident the par of exchange with England would become 18½ per cent. As specie has actually disappeared, and as a currency of paper supplies its place, of an inferior value by 10 per cent. it is clearly erroneous now to say, if the exchange of Dublin on London is 16½ per cent. that it is 8 per cent. above par; the fact is, it is 2 per cent. below par, and it is therefore a fact, that under the existing circumstances of the currency of Ireland, an exchange of 16 per cent. is a proof of a balance of trade and remittances in favour of Ireland. The state and variations therefore of currencies are in this case, and oftentimes, the principal agents in producing variations in exchange; and where the variations are very great, unusual, and after some time cease, leaving exchange very different to what it generally had been, it is then certain, that some great alteration in currency has happened.' P. 13.

Lord Lauderdale, not taking so general a view of the subject, touches but incidentally upon the principles of currency and exchange. Both authors, however, being convinced of the depreciation of the Irish paper, agree also in opinion that the increase or excessive issue of bank paper is the true cause of that depreciation.

Lord Lauderdale has laboured to prove this beyond what appears to be necessary, and some of his historical details prove more than is applicable to the present state of Ireland. The causes which in any country are likely to depreciate paper currency, exclusive of its excessive issue, are, doubts of the solvency of the bank by which it is circulated, or want of confidence from political considerations. Now, the solvency of the bank of Ireland has never been doubted; and if political considerations had operated upon the minds of the public, we should have seen the effect at periods when Ireland was far more exposed to invasion and rebellion than during the time when the depreciation took place. In the absence of these causes, therefore, can we have a simpler or more satisfactory account of the matter than what is to be found in Mr. Parnell's short explanation of it?

'The value which the paper has lost in comparison with the value of specie into which it was formerly convertible, can only be attributed to the same cause which lessens the value of every article of sale, barter, or exchange, namely, more of it being brought to market than the demand requires. The surplus above that quantity which is requisite for carrying on the various operations of trade, receipts, and payments, necessarily contributes to diminish the value of the whole in circulation, and to enhance, in a proportionate degree, the prices of all things.' P. 3.

It is agreed on all hands, that as the evil originated with the

restriction act, the obvious and effectual remedy is the renewal of cash payments; but the repeal of this act, which has produced so much mischief, seems to be viewed with a degree of hesitation and terror greater than ought to be encouraged. The expence and difficulty to which the bank would perhaps be exposed, may be held up as perpetual obstacles to the expediency of removing the restriction. The bank, considered as a corporation not merely for public purposes, but as traders for private emolument, are deeply interested in the continuance of the restriction. As connected with the public good, every measure affecting their operations is certainly to be adopted with the utmost caution; but as private individuals, they are entitled to no further consideration in point of expence and difficulty, than that the fixing a period at a reasonable distance should afford them the opportunity of taking every preparatory step which discretion and good sense may point out for the purpose of diminishing the risk, preventing unnecessary loss, and securing ultimate and permanent success.

Lord Lauderdale formally announces that the reduction of the quantity of bank paper in circulation, is the only remedy for the existing evil; a self-evident proposition, after admitting that the depreciation arises from the excessive issue. This, however, he makes the subject of a separate section: not, of course, for the purpose of proving that the diminution of any thing is a fit remedy for the excess of it; but of throwing, we conceive, an unnecessary and unfounded degree of ridicule upon some temporary expedients that have been adopted,—such as the Irish treasury drawing on London at a rate inferior to the natural or market course of exchange, the issue of a quantity of stamped dollars at the value of six shillings, and the restraint on the circulation of all notes of less value than twenty shillings. The means which his lordship proposes in his concluding section are, calling in the debts due by government, borrowing upon loan, and increasing the capital of the bank. We are not disposed to deny the efficiency of these means to accomplish the object in view, but they are far from shewing any thing like absurdity or impropriety in the measures which have excited his lordship's disapprobation. The noble earl cannot be serious when he supposes that these measures have been devised for the purpose of effectually redressing the grievances under which Ireland now labours.

As we understand them, they are measures calculated to induce the bank to begin the necessary curtailment of their credits, and gradually to withdraw the superfluous notes from circulation. The means recommended by his lordship are not the objects of compulsory acts on the part of government; they are addressed to the good sense and patriotism of the bank

proprietors. Every thing, therefore, which has a tendency to encourage the bank to the use of these means, has a beneficial effect more or less, while its operation continues. It is evident then, that the treasury drawing on London at a rate under the market course of exchange, must necessarily lower the exchange; and the issue of silver, as far as it goes, improves the general currency, at least for a time. Both these circumstances, the fall of the exchange and the amelioration of the currency, counteract the depreciation of the bank paper, or in other words raise its value; and if taken advantage of while in operation, enable the bank to withdraw part of their notes with less loss and inconvenience.

There are other measures which have been mentioned as likely to contribute materially to produce the desired effect, and are well worthy of attention; particularly the making the paper of the Irish national bank convertible, on demand, into bank of England paper. The chief objection to this naturally comes from the directors of the bank of Ireland, and is founded on the expence they must be at in purchasing a sufficient quantity of bank of England paper to supply the demand. 'This, however, we conceive has been overrated, and no further loss would accrue than what the previous misconduct of the bank of Ireland directors deservedly subjects them to.

' And it is evident, that, even admitting, for the sake of argument, that there would be a loss, it would be merely temporary, and only to an extent sufficient to provide payment for some of the first remittances made under this plan; which remittances would soon cease to be made in English notes, because the very circumstance of making payments in them would take away the cause of an unfavourable exchange, by giving to the debts due by Ireland to England their true and real value. Thus, when the credit and value of English paper was attached to that of Ireland, the effect on public opinion would be such, as to produce an exchange at par. If it should afterwards happen, which is almost impossible, that the exchange should be against this country, it will arise from an excess of bank paper being left or issued into circulation. But as this advance in exchange would immediately operate as a loss to the bank in providing English notes, it is evident the directors will never issue paper beyond such a limit as will maintain the exchange at par. This is the true limit which should be placed to their issues of paper.' p. 55.

Another measure calculated to produce a similar effect, and apparently liable to less objection, is that which is to be found in the evidence of Mr. Mansfield before the committee, the substance of which is given by Mr. Parnell with tolerable correctness.

' After the peace of Versailles, exchange was from 5 to 6 per

cent. against Scotland. The cause of it arose from artificial means, by people collecting gold from the different banks, bringing it to London, and passing their bills at Edinburgh for the same. This lasted for a considerable time; it began to alter about 1770. The two chartered banks of Scotland, seeing that exchange arose from artificial means, began to think of collecting as much funds as they could to bring to London of their own. Those funds they lodged partly with the bank of England, and partly with their own bankers; and the banks then began to reduce the rate of exchange gradually, by beginning at, perhaps, half per cent. or one per cent. less in drawing on London than the common rate, till they reduced it to what it has since been.

'At the time exchange was most against Scotland, the currency of Scotland was principally paper, and that to a greater extent than the natural trade of the country required. After May, 1766, the chartered banks of Scotland finding that they had given imprudent credit to bankers and their agents to issue notes, they curtailed them very much, and cut off the credits of the agents of the country banks who held accounts with them. The unfavourable state of exchange commenced nearly at the time when these extraordinary credits were given, and the new banks were instituted. The system of the chartered banks contributed to diminish the too great extension of paper, which was composed partly of that of the old and new banks. Mr. Mansfield said, "I certainly think that the over issue of paper was the cause of the high rate of exchange." No inconvenience arose from the change of the system, besides the temporary one of the banks being obliged to provide funds in the first instance in London; on the contrary, it has been productive of the greatest good. The exchange was brought gradually to a fixed rate, and has continued at that rate ever since the banks paid their notes by bills on London, at a fixed date.' P. 140.

Lord Lauderdale accuses the exchange committee of a misconception of Mr. Mansfield's evidence, and supposes that the establishment of a fund in London is recommended, without any means being at the same time employed to diminish the quantity of paper in circulation. With submission to his lordship, his observations in this respect discover some degree of unnecessary anxiety to find fault; for although it be true that the measures taken by the bank of Scotland to recall a great proportion of their notes preceded their establishing a fund in London some considerable time, it does not follow that such establishment might not sooner have taken place with more immediate effect. In fact, the very commencement of such an establishment involves in it the necessity of diminishing the quantity of paper in circulation, to make provision for the new fund; and all that is requisite to be attended to, is, that in withdrawing the superfluous notes, the curtailment of credits, the limitation of discounts, and other means resorted to, be used with such prudent deliberation as to prevent any se-

rious interruption to the legitimate pursuits of the mercantile community. Every measure of this sort, as far as it tends merely to repress extravagant speculation and the inordinate thirst of gain, although it may be attended with partial inconvenience, is highly beneficial in its ultimate general effects.

In the event of these measures contributing to raise the value of the paper currency, the present state of the silver and copper currency demands the earliest attention. No remedy for the evils now complained of appears to be effectual, except a new silver and copper coinage of sufficient magnitude to render it practicable to call in the whole of the base coin now in circulation. It appears to be further desirable, that in the adoption of this plan there should be an assimilation in the value of the component parts of the coin in both countries, so that the par of exchange may be expressed in equal quantities, and not, as at present, by a per-centage of eight pounds six shillings and eightpence. So extensive a new coinage must be attended with trouble and exertion on the part of government; but the difficulties to be obviated are trivial, when compared with the injurious effects of the present system. In Mr. Parnell's opinion,

'The present appears a good opportunity for making the currency of Ireland in every respect similar to that of England. If beside a new silver coinage, a coinage of copper was also adopted, and the value of it so settled, that 12 pence should be equal to a shilling, the great trouble and inconvenience attending the settling of accounts according to the present value of the copper coin would be removed. But this plan should be attended with a regulation that all payments on instruments executed prior to the alteration, should be payable according to the usual coinage.' P. 93.

We must take the liberty of adding, that in the first place every rational and probable means of reducing the quantity of paper, and consequently raising its value, ought to be adopted and steadily acted upon; otherwise the good effects of a new coinage must for obvious reasons be retarded, if not entirely counteracted.

Mr. Parnell introduces some interesting observations on the effects of the remittances to absentees, supposed to amount to two millions sterling, with a view to prove that the opinions entertained of the injury they do to Ireland, as tending to diminish its wealth, are altogether erroneous. In order to form a satisfactory opinion upon this subject, we confess we think it deserves a more minute investigation than it has hitherto undergone. There is certainly some truth in the remark, that when the rents to be remitted are applied to the purchase of articles in Ireland, and the payments made by their exportation,

the encouragement to industry is so far kept up, and the supposed evil counteracted by the advantages derived from an increase of exports; but we do not see that this must necessarily be the uniform consequence of having so large a sum to remit to England.

The subject is intricate, and at present rests too much on theory. The public would be indebted to any intelligent gentleman who would take the pains to collect as many facts as possible respecting the management of the estates of absentees, and the means usually resorted to for the remittance of rents. In the mean time we cannot but express our conviction, that the non-residence of so many men of rank and fortune must, under all circumstances commercial and political, be unfavourable to the interests of Ireland.

ART. VIII.—*Lectures on the Acts of the Apostles, explanatory and practical, by Richard Stack, D. D. late Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. Second Edition. 8vo. 7s. Cadell and Davies. 1805.*

IF we except the writings of Moses, and the gospel history of the life of our Saviour, the book of the Acts of the Apostles contains an account of the most important and most interesting period in the annals of the whole world. The characteristic source of this importance is well pointed out in the passage of St. Chrysostom which Dr. Stack has chosen as the motto for his work. *Τὰ μὲν οὖν εὐαγγέλια, ὧν ὁ Χρῆστος ἐποίησε καὶ εἶπεν, ἱστορία τις ἐστὶν· αἱ δὲ πράξεις, ὧν ὁ ἕτερος Παράκλητος εἶπε καὶ ἐποίησε.* 'The Gospels are an history of things which Christ did and spake: the Acts, of things which another' (rather the other) 'Paraclete spake and did.' And yet perhaps this importance would force itself upon our minds much more strongly, if both the gospels and Acts were considered in their connexion with the book of Genesis, and the other writings of Moses. What can be more interesting than the grand principles of truth and knowledge, which they thus jointly offer to our understandings! The three words creation, redemption, and sanctification, which have a distinct reference to those three writings, and to the divine operations described in them, will easily be seen to comprise materials, in which man is more concerned than in any other which can possibly be presented before him.

To any one who should approach the subject in this train, and with a mind prepared and fortified by those conclusions to which the contemplation of this economy would lead him, it would appear no mystery to perceive the forlorn, scanty, and scattered flock, which Jesus left behind him, after all his teach-

ing and miracles. But with a mind impressed by the grandeur and sublimity of the scheme of distinct divine operations and dispensations laid down before him, he would enter upon the history contained in the Acts of the Apostles with feelings congenial to those of our great epic bard :

' And chiefly thou, O Spirit, that dost prefer
Before all temples the upright heart and pure,
Instruct me, for thou know'st: *thou from the first*
Wast present, and with mighty wings outspread,
Dove-like sat'st brooding.'

The bare enumeration of some portion of the particular topics into which the series of the story would conduct him, will shew that it is replete with materials for the most exalted eloquence and instruction. It contains the only authentic accounts of the first planting of the gospel, and of its subsequent progress over a great part of the earth. Hence also may be sufficiently deduced, against the insinuations of infidelity, the true causes and reasons of that propagation. The writer will pause to admire and explain the miraculous gifts of the Spirit; the calling and grafting-in of the Gentiles; the stubbornness and rejection of the Jews; the lives and manners of the early christians; the constitution of the church, its ministers, laws, and ordinances; and the conversions, perils, and labours, of the early apostles and martyrs. From this book he will further shew in what manner many of the most difficult parts of the writings of St. Paul may best be explained: he will point out the errors of Jews and Judaizing christians; he will note the seeds of early heresies, and the opposition and artifices of idolatry and Gentile philosophy. Nor, while he draws from the example a lesson of encouragement to the labours of patient and sober research, will he neglect to note how, even within a few years, this part of the sacred volume has been made subservient to the erection of one of the most satisfactory and unexceptionable arguments for the truth of the christian religion, which human ingenuity has ever devised: we allude to the *Horæ Paulinæ* of Dr. Paley. And thus would he shew that this, like other scripture, is given by inspiration of God, and is profitable for doctrine, for reproof, for correction, for instruction in righteousness.

The model which Dr. Stack has chosen for his direction and imitation in the present work, is the eloquent and popular Lectures of the present bishop of London upon the gospel of St. Matthew. Could we say with truth, that Dr. Stack has produced a book equal to that model, it would be no common degree of praise; and would, we are persuaded, fully satisfy his most sanguine expectations. The Lectures of

Dr. Porteus were, we conceive, singularly happy in their design, their execution, and in the nature and extent of their usefulness. Dr. Stack's *design* is in no respect inferior, except that the other has the merit of priority. The *usefulness* of his book we hope may be great; and with regard to its *execution*, it has, no doubt, very respectable claims to our commendation. The style, though not eloquent, is in general correct, perspicuous, and suitable for instruction; the interpretations for the most part are true, and derived from good sources; the exhortations and *improvements* (if we may so speak) are rational and pious; and the whole work inspires us with a favourable opinion of the integrity and sincerity of its author. Yet we will not dissemble that Dr. Stack has left us much to desire. From such a design we were led involuntarily to look for a more interesting, more copious, and more eloquent performance. Dr. Stack represents it as a great excellence in the work which was his model, that in it the most striking and luminous points are happily chosen, and the great doctrines and duties of christianity chiefly insisted upon. From a strict imitation of this excellence and advantage, he seems to consider himself as precluded by the nature of the book upon which he has chosen to comment. 'The Acts of the Apostles,' says he in the advertisement, 'being a composition purely historical, the writer did not feel himself at liberty to pass over the statement and connection of facts.' If this reason be valid, we do not sufficiently see why it was not obligatory upon the bishop of London also: or why, in other words, the gospel of St. Matthew is not, in almost an equal degree, an historical composition. We are willing however to concede (which is more than he requires of us), that the method of Dr. Stack is at the least as suitable to that species of discourse which is called lecturing. But then, the imperfection to which this kind of composition is liable, ought to have been diligently guarded against. The attention is too often distracted by an enumeration and progressive explanation of less important particulars; and the grand doctrines, the surprising narratives, the principal subjects for instruction and eloquence, are not always sufficiently distinguished and elevated in the space afforded to them by Dr. Stack above what he has set apart for the statement and exposition of the ordinary narrative. It would be found by any one who should take the pains to examine, that some of the particulars which we have mentioned above, as a specimen of the principal topics contained in the Acts of the Apostles, are very slightly touched upon in the present work.

But, while Dr. Stack has not, we think, sufficiently imitated that excellence which he admires, nor sufficiently avoided that

imperfection to which he seems to have been aware that his method of lecture-writing was liable, it is more a matter of surprise to us, and is much less excusable, that he has increased his difficulties, and still further diminished the interest of his work, by a not infrequent introduction of particulars, with their corresponding comment and explanation, to which the plan which he has chosen did by no means oblige him. In justice to Dr. Stack, and for the sake of illustrating our meaning, we shall mention two or three instances of this fault. Thus, page 12, the discussion respecting the Jewish sabbath, and the sabbath-day's journey; that (pages 28-9) respecting the two kinds of proselytes; that (pages 67-8) whether the captain of the temple was a Roman or Jewish officer, and several others of a like kind, might have been well spared. Of some of them it may reasonably be doubted whether they ought to be noticed in an express and extensive commentary; but in a popular discourse they ought by no means to be allowed to distract the hearer's attention, and to take up that time which is wanted to listen to divine precept, to an exposition of the lives of saints and martyrs, of the decisions of the church of Christ, of the propagation of his gospel, and of the operations of the Holy Ghost.

Yet, while we prefer these complaints, let it not be supposed that we are not ready to allow that many important passages in the history of the Acts of the Apostles are treated with adequate importance by Dr. Stack, and characterised sufficiently by the features of that species of eloquence with which it has been his object to content himself. We shall lay two passages before our readers: and they will ascribe it to our respect for Dr. Stack, when they perceive that we have purposely chosen them; the former to call to mind how the same subject has been treated by Dr. Bentley, the latter by bishop Atterbury.

‘In the sixteenth verse we read that Paul’s “spirit was stirred in him,” or, in other words, his mind was greatly disturbed and exasperated, “when he saw the city wholly given to idolatry.” He began, therefore, to dispute not only with Jews upon the subject, which particularly concerned them, but likewise with devout Greeks, upon the objects of their devotion. “Then certain philosophers, of the Epicureans, and of the Stoics, encountered him.” These two sects were very opposite in their principles; yet each of them ill disposed to receive the doctrines and precepts of christianity. For the Epicureans denied a providence, the subsistence of the soul after death, and a future state of rewards and punishments. And to these tenets the conduct of their lives was answerable; for they addicted themselves entirely to pleasure and present enjoyment. The Stoics, on the other hand, though professing, and

sometimes practising a severe morality, were filled with notions quite inconsistent with the meek and humble religion of Christ. For, not to insist on their false sentiments of God, whom they held to be corporeal, and under the controul of fate, they represented their wise man as in himself all sufficient and perfect, not even inferior to the highest of the gods; and thus encouraged in their disciples an immoderate pride.

‘Such were the men, some of whom said, “What will this babbler say? Other some, he seemeth to be a setter-forth of strange gods; because he preached to them Jesus and the resurrection.” And so they bring him to Areopagus, their highest and most celebrated court of judicature; by whose authority alone the admission and worship of new gods was legally sanctioned. Here Paul stood up in the midst, and said, “Ye men of Athens, I perceive that in all things ye are too superstitious.”—The word, here translated *superstitious*, is frequently used in a more favourable sense: and if we attend to the spirit of Paul’s oration, that it is every where else mild and conciliating, we shall be led to suppose nothing more intended here, than to convey the acknowledged character of the Athenians for religious worship above all other nations. In this view his introduction will appear at once engaging to his hearers, and proper for the argument in hand: as if he had said, Ye men of Athens, I perceive that ye are more than commonly zealous about your devotions, and careful to omit no one object of them whatsoever: “For as I passed by I found an altar with this inscription, *To the unknown God.*”—Which account is confirmed by heathen writers; and facts are recorded, shewing the excessive zeal of this people in the adoration of deities, of whose qualities, and even names, they were utterly ignorant. Neither is it improbable, that by the unknown God may be meant the God of the Jews; for he was called by the Gentiles *the nameless, the ineffable, the invisible*; having no particular name like their own gods, nor like them worshipped with statues and images. Josephus, among several other titles, gives him that of *unknown as to his essence*. The Jews also held the name of God in great secrecy and veneration, taking care not to use it in common, but reserving it to most sacred and solemn occasions: “Verily,” says the prophet Isaiah, “thou art a God that hidest thyself, O God of Israel!”

‘The interpretation now given connects immediately and closely with the following words;—“whom therefore ye ignorantly worship, him I declare unto you.”—He then proceeds to lay before them several of the grand truths both of natural and revealed religion; preaching God, the maker and governor of the world, Lord of heaven and earth, filling all places, and therefore not confined to temples made by men; neither honoured by the works of their hands, as though he could possibly stand in need of any thing from them; who is the fountain of all good, of life and every other blessing; who hath formed all mankind of one blood and family, thus connecting them in bonds of affinity and love, and hath assigned to every nation under heaven their particular times and places of abode, dividing to them their inheritance, when he

separated the sons of Adam; who hath in these and all his mighty works given evidence of himself to such as diligently seek after God, thus sensibly present so as to be even felt by them; neither does it require subtle and curious speculation to find him out; "He is not far from every one of us, For in him we live and move and have our being,"—we are inevitably led by a moment's reflection upon our own existence, life, and motion, to acknowledge some great eternal cause and origin of all our powers, "as certain also of your own poets have said," especially Aratus, who calls us his offspring. "For as much then as we are his offspring," how can we possibly think that the Godhead is like to gold or silver or any other work of our hands, the Creator to the workmanship of the creature? Such gross ignorance and idolatry cannot but be most offensive in his sight: yet hitherto he hath graciously winked at them, not visiting with strict judgment. But now having sent Jesus Christ into the world, to enlighten mankind and call them to repentance, they are no longer to expect a toleration of their offences; for which they must answer on the day appointed by him to "judge the world in righteousness, by that man whom he hath ordained; whereof he hath given assurance to all men, in that he hath raised him from the dead." For what argument could be more convincing, what testimony more decisive, in favour of Christ and his doctrine of future judgment by the son of man, than his own victory over death and the grave?

'While St. Paul made this short but excellent oration, he was heard with attention, till he spoke of the resurrection of the dead: at which some (probably those of the Epicurean sect) mocked; others (the Stoics it is most likely, who had some notion of man's revival to a future state) said "we will hear thee again of this matter."—However he made some converts, who attached themselves closely to him: amongst whom was Dionysius, a member of that supreme court which Paul now addressed.' p. 260.

The next passage is one of the most spirited in the whole volume:

'We now come to examine the conduct of St. Paul before Felix and Drusilla; an occasion which displays the truest dignity of mind, the most heroic contempt of danger, and the most benevolent concern for unhappy souls under the power of sin, to be found in the history of mankind. This Drusilla was sister to king Agrippa, a woman of exquisite beauty; and had been married to Azizus, king of the Emesenes, but was seduced from him by Felix. Now let us consider what were the topics chosen by Paul, when, being sent for, he spoke concerning the faith in Christ. A man influenced by common motives, would in his situation have dwelt on such matters as should be most pleasing, at least would have carefully avoided every thing offensive to his hearers. And so, no doubt, would the apostle have done (for he was by no means unacquainted with the arts of persuasion) had not a superior duty and higher authority commanded him to speak more honestly and boldly: "He reasoned of righteousness, and temperance, and

judgment to come."—He discoursed of justice before a man, covered with crimes of oppression, cruelty, and wrong; of continence before him and his profligate mistress, who were plunged in the guilt of adultery; and of a future day of judgment, when such crimes should be brought to a severe account, and punished as they deserved by a righteous and pure judge. What could be expected from such home truths, which they could not avoid applying to their own hearts, but a gross abuse of power in some way of revenge? Felix had already shewn himself very capable of this conduct; and there was every reason to apprehend, that he would be encouraged to restrain such freedom by the infamous Drusilla. For how unpardonable must such a woman have thought it in him, to censure even indirectly a Roman governor and an admired queen, who had his life in their hands! But these things could not shake St. Paul's glorious purpose of reclaiming those sinners from their evil courses, and urging them by terror and remorse to repent and be converted. They might kill the body; but he would, if possible, save their souls. Could he compass this grand object, he lightly regarded bonds, imprisonment, or death; he therefore with undaunted courage spoke to them the words of truth and life. Never did this great apostle appear more great and good, more wise, disinterested, brave, generous, and humane. Whoever can read this passage without sentiments of the deepest veneration, must be deficient in some of the best qualities of our nature. Every man of virtue must admire so much excellence.

'It pleased God to give a different effect to St. Paul's discourse, from what could have been expected in the common course of human affairs: "Felix trembled."—He felt the force of his just and powerful reasoning, saw the hideous picture of his own vile character, and for a while anticipated the horrors of future judgment. But still clinging to his favourite vices, he could not persuade himself to yield them up: nor yet was he able to endure reproof with total want of sense or concern. Thus wavering between the love of sin and the fear of punishment, (when the first, as usual, prevailed in the end) he said to Paul, "Go thy way for this time; when I have a convenient season I will call for thee."—The impression was for a moment lively and strong; but it soon passed off a soul devoted to the world: inveterate habits soon returned and entirely destroyed the good seed. Of which we have an extraordinary and melancholy proof in the words that follow; "He hoped also, that money should have been given him of Paul, that he might loose him: wherefore he sent for him the oftner, and communed with him."—He knew that Paul had been commissioned to bring alms to his nation; and his avarice caught at the hope of turning these to his own profit. He was ready to make a sale of justice, though the price should be paid from the fund of the poor. What a sordid and iniquitous mind must his have been! No wonder, that the preaching even of St. Paul should work no lasting change in it.' P. 344.

We would recommend to Dr. Stack a careful revisal of this volume. In many places the style stands in need of amend-

ment, and in some the grammar. We are of opinion also that the work might be much improved by curtailments in some parts, and by being extended and enlarged in others. We will venture to say further, that had the work consisted of two volumes of the same size with the present instead of one, it would have better deserved, and more obtained, the patronage of the public.

ART. IX.—*Public Characters of 1805. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Beards. Phillips. 1805.*

WERE this work to be estimated by an implicit believer in its title-page, he would declare it to be one of the most interesting publications of the day. The lives of our cotemporaries, faithfully narrated, would with justice excite more of our attention than all the biography of former times. But this fidelity is too bold to be expected; and yet, to compensate for its loss in the pages before us, the authors have substituted an admirable impartiality in its stead, which is a slave to no determined religious or political principles; which disdains to discriminate between good and evil, between notorious and never-heard-of characters; but comprizes in its 'annual list of worthies' the devout and the debauched, the noble and the ignominious; slurring over all their various imperfections, and puffing off their virtues, as the mountebank does his nostrums. That none may be offended, all are praised alike. Let any one peruse the catalogue of persons facetiously styled 'public characters,' prefixed to this as well as to the six former volumes, and doubt the impudence of the title. To specify those instances in which the misnomer is most gross, where the individual is really too obscure for any notice but that of the parish register, would be in the highest degree illiberal. If these persons themselves have any delicacy (which by the way they cannot have, if their permission was given to the writers of their lives), we should be sorry to shock it by rendering their undesired and undeserved notoriety more extensive by transcription. But when we saw the name of Dr. Bree in this volume, we began to fear we were introduced to a 'public character' indeed! for as the person we allude to omits no method of *advertising* himself into notice, we thought he might have written his own life in the present paltry calendar. However, we were mistaken; and the life of a very respectable medical gentleman of Birmingham (but who, we doubt not, is surprized to find himself a public character), backed by an irrelevant bookmaking 'account of the state of the manu-

facturing poor in that town,' was, till we examined it, the cause of our mistake.

As a specimen of the frivolity of these mock biographers, we shall select a passage from the life of Dr. Jackson, dean of Christchurch. After a foolish story about lord Duncannon, it proceeds:

'And thus, with apparent ease to himself, and universal satisfaction to the members of his society, does the dean keep up due order and subordination without giving offence to any. In conversation he is free, affable, and polite, and sometimes does not hesitate to be jocose even with the junior members of the college. With such qualities it would be strange, indeed, if he was not generally beloved by those under his care, as he certainly is; though in the university, partly from a mean jealousy which reigns in the other colleges, and partly from some peculiarities, he is very unpopular. Wherever there is real excellence, envy is sure to attend it; and that is unfortunately true in the case now before us.' P. 273.

'After having said so much concerning his various kinds of knowledge and extensive information, it may be a matter of surprise that the dean of Christ Church has never appeared before the world as an author. For this he has not assigned any reason; but as it is certain no one could be better calculated for some great literary performance than himself, the only way in which we can account for his having omitted to gratify the public in this respect, is that almost the whole of his time is occupied by the necessary duties of his station, and that he chooses rather to forego the fame which he might with ease acquire in another way, than suffer his attention to be taken from the concerns of his college.

'Dean Jackson usually spends the short vacations in close study at Oxford; but during the long one in summer he is accustomed to visit a sea-bathing place, and usually fixes upon some sequestered village on the coast. The Isle of Wight is a great favourite with him upon those occasions, and a considerable portion of his leisure time has been spent there. When at Oxford he regularly employs two hours every day in traversing the beautiful walks of Christ Church with the tutors and others of his college, who find his conversation a rich fund of literary entertainment.' P. 274.

'The dean must have now become so riveted to the customs and duties of his present situation, that it is probable he will not give it up while his vigour of body and mind continue in any tolerable degree. Upon the death of archbishop Newcombe, the primacy of Ireland, a place of great wealth, was presented for his acceptance, which he refused without hesitation. He was also offered the bishopric of Oxford, on the death of Dr. Smallwell; but declined it in favour of his highly-esteemed friend Dr. Randolph, the present worthy prelate of that see. It is conjectured by some that he wishes to succeed to the bishopric of Worcester, and by others to the archbishopric of York; but these are mere suppositions, and

are perhaps without any foundation. Probably he is conscious that no successor would be able to conduct the affairs of the college in the manner he does, and therefore wishes the society to enjoy prosperity under such favourable auspices as long as possible.'

P. 275.

Dr. Jackson must revolt from this indecent obtrusion of his private habits, and college-management, upon the public. Nor do we think major Topham can be less angry with the nonsense under the shape of praise, which is lavished upon his moral and intellectual attainments: but still more with the ironical parallel, meant indeed perhaps seriously in the manner of Plutarch, drawn between himself and Cicero! How important are the following notices!

'Major Topham passed eleven years at Eton, where he was fortunate enough to be distinguished by frequently having his verses publicly read by the master in school, or, as it is there termed, by being *sent up for good*. He afterwards formed one of the numerous band of upper boys who were very severely punished for being engaged in the great rebellion that took place under Dr. Forster, then master, who was a great Latinist, a great Grecian, a great Hebraist, and every thing but—a man of common sense. In the ways of the world he was a very Parson Adams, and of course not well qualified to govern the greatest public seminary in the kingdom, which at one time boasted five hundred and fifty students.' P. 199.

'At Cambridge, major Topham remained four years, long enough to put on what is there called "an Harry Soph's gown," which many people would think was exchanging a good for a bad gown; the gown of the fellow-commoner being purple and silver, and that of the Harry Soph black silk.

'From Cambridge he went abroad for a year and a half, and afterwards travelled through Scotland. This little tour became better known, as he afterwards gave an account of it in "Letters from Edinburgh," published by Dodsley. As the work of a strippling, they were so well received, that the first edition was soon out of print. Thence he removed to the seat of all human joy, in the eyes of a young man, London, and entered into the first regiment of life-guards, which in the hey-day of the blood may be thought to make that still greater.' P. 199.

But as a specimen of style, can any thing exceed this bombastic mummery upon madness?

'When this "dreaded visitation" has once taken place, all that follows is lamentable in the extreme. The brightest corruscations of genius, the tenderest feelings of the tenderest heart, the noblest efforts of the most enlightened or most reflecting mind, the most exact discretion, the most rigid reserve, all may, or may not, take an opposite direction; and chance, and mad, and momentary im-

pulses alone decide the character. 'To view this change is the severest pang the heart can feel: to lament over it is to be mad ourselves: to stop or govern it is to direct the whirlwind and the storm.' P. 208.

Who was sufficiently aware before of the difficulty and the danger of editing a *morning paper*?

'They who have known what the daily supply, the daily toil, the daily difficulty, the hourly danger, and the incessant tumult of a morning paper is, can alone know that chaos of the brain in which a man lives who has all this to undergo. Terror walks before him: fatigue bears him down: libels encompass him, and distraction attacks him on every side. He must be a literary man, and a commercial man: he must be a political man, and a theatrical man; and must run through all the changes from a pantomime to a prime minister. What every man is pursuing, he must be engaged in; and from the very nature and "front of his offence," he must be acquainted with all the wants, the weaknesses, and wickedness, from one end of London to the other.

'To view all this might gratify curiosity for the moment: to live in it is to guide a little boat in a storm under a battery of great guns firing at him every moment; but even this has an advantage; it may endear retirement or make seclusion pleasant. In fact, and without a pun, on quitting the World, major Topham retired to his native county, and has lived two hundred miles from the metropolis, without once visiting it during the space of six whole years.

'Who could have done this? Who could have thought that remote hills, solitary plains, and, what is worse, country conversation, would have found charms sufficient to detain a town-made man from the streets of London? The physicians would answer, "cooling scenes are the lenitives of fever." After the long labours of a sultry day, where can the weary fly better than to the shade? The man thus circumstanced will naturally say,

'O rus! quando ego te aspiciam, quandoque licebit
Ducere sollicitæ jucunda oblivia vitæ!'

'Major Topham, we understand, has not found, even in retirement, time hang heavy upon his hands. The duties of a country magistrate, in a large county, are very great, and very incessant. He has a considerable farm of some hundred acres under his own management, and his occasional hours he is dedicating to the compilation of a "History of his own Life." He has along with him, those who in his retirement have proved his best solace, three daughters, who are said to be nearly as beautiful as their mother, and whose manners and understandings are reported by those who have seen them, to be equal to all that might be expected.' P. 208.

From the life of Mrs. Cosway we beg leave to present our readers with one choice passage:

'While man busies himself in the depths of science, woman loses herself amidst the ethereal regions of fancy. She roves from steep to steep, plucking wild flowers from every side. Myrtles press forward with the green laurel to shade her head; violets spring beneath her feet, and unnumbered sweets steep her senses in fragrance. Alps rise on Alps, and yet the lovely pilgrim is not checked in her course. She crosses dreadful precipices; she ascends fearful heights; Love beckons her from one point, and Fame hails her from another beyond it. Forward she flies: the affections yoke the doves to her car, and after many a perilous flight, they lay her on a bed of amaranth within the arms of glory!

'Mrs. Cosway, the subject of these memoirs, is a striking example of this assertion.' P. 296.

But how great must be our indignation, how great must be his own, when a scholar no less eminent for his modesty than his talents, is dragged from the obscurity of his college, where he has lived contented with the humble duties of his offices as a tutor, Bampton lecturer, and examining master for degrees, occasionally indeed emerging into the world as a prose writer and Whitehall preacher,—when Mr. Kett, we say, is not only ironically termed a 'public character,' but even his verses, of which he must long since have repented, and rejoiced in their 'dropping dead from the press,' are quoted to his face! As his biographer classically observes—

'Pudet hæc opprobria dici,
Et non potuisse refelli.'

Again, so meritorious are this gentleman's exertions in favour of our religion, that it is painful to see his 'Elements of General Knowledge' obtruded upon the world in a style of laboured praise. 'An enemy hath done this.' Nor can the duchess of Devonshire be well pleased with that publicity here given to her poetical *bijoux* which she herself had denied to their merit. At all events, such a false print as the following should have been guarded against in her grace's poems:

'Rise the bare rocks, coëval with the sky.' P. 425.

We shall conclude our comments upon this abominable trash by a quotation of the heaviest stupidity:

'These fortunate islands, notwithstanding the captious objections of peevish geographers, must certainly have been the Hesperides of the ancients! The golden apples alluded to in history are still to be met with in Herefordshire, and occasionally in Covent-garden; while, to complete the resemblance, the male and female dragons who guard them in both places will never consent to part with any of those valuable productions, unless Hercules himself should appear in the shape of a piece of money. The number and

value of our flocks too is another proof of identity, for we have possessed from the earliest periods a fleece which may justly vie with that of Colchis; in addition to which, one of the late Mr. Bakewell's rams might have actually carried both Phryxus and Helle on his back at the same time, while his woolly covering would have defrayed no small portion of the expence attendant on the Argonautic expedition!

'A third, and indeed the most convincing proof, arises from the lovely faces and enchanting figures of our fair countrywomen; and if these modern Pleiades have not, like their mothers of antiquity, "the immortal gods themselves for their suitors," every man possessed of common gallantry will allow that they at least deserve them!' P. 411.

Any absurdity, however dull, any specimen of the art of bookmaking, however gross, quoted after this, must lose by the comparison; we shall therefore conclude our strictures here. Let us however at parting whisper a word in the ears of the more independent authors of 'Public Characters.' We have already told them that genius, modesty, rank, and real worth, must be offended by their notice: and are they not ashamed of indifferently extolling the motley fool, and hoary sinner? As for those who are paid to praise themselves, the temptation is irresistible. Assailed at once by vanity and gain, well may they fling away the *camphor bag*, and march through the world without blushing, even in such scurvy company as a very large part of the 'public characters.'

AS a kind of supplement to our general censure of the plan and execution of this work, we shall present our readers with a few particular instances of the omissions and mistakes of its authors. For the sake of brevity and perspicuity, we shall arrange them under the following short and distinct heads—of

Misrepresentations (for we will not use a harsher name), and Ignorant Mutilations.

Misrepresentation the First:

In the life of admiral Warren, page the second, we have the following note:

'It is well known that it was deemed prudent, on this occasion, to retreat into the Bristol Channel; and the author of this article has heard from an officer of distinction, that a British sailor on board the Royal George, unacquainted with the policy of the measure, but highly indignant at the supposed disgrace, threw a hammock over the head of his sovereign, observing at the same time, "That his majesty should never witness the flight of an English fleet!"'

May we not exclaim, with prince Henry,—'These lies are

gross and palpable as the father that begets them?' (that is, the devil, or the printer's devil, or—but we stop our conjectures: if their father is not ashamed of them, we have done with him). 'Mark how a plain tale shall set you down.' The British fleet did not retreat into the Bristol Channel. It made an orderly retreat, under an easy sail, up the English Channel, before an enemy of twice its force, till it arrived off Plymouth: it then came to an anchor, and waited a whole night for the approach of the combined fleets; but the hearts of the French and Spaniards failed them. The device attributed to a British sailor is too absurd to be credited; for if, according to this writer, the English fleet was running away before the enemy, how, unless he supposes the ships to have sailed head hindmost, could the image of his majesty, which formed the head of the ship, be offended at the sight of what it could not see? The daughter indeed of the governor of Tilbury-fort had a kind of poetical second-sight; but it must be remembered that the grave matter-of-fact man her father, admonished her of its absurdity:

'Daughter, those ships thou canst not see,
Because they're not in sight.'

Sheridan's Critic.

Misrepresentation the second:

The author of major Topham's life allows him ample time for making that progress which it must universally be allowed he did make at Eton school; but the quickness of the major's improvement is by no means done justice to, as he did not pass more than four years at that seminary of learned and religious education. In spite also of what is asserted (p. 209) concerning the major's total retirement from the gay world, the said major exhibited in London in 1804, the same grotesque figure with which he amused the metropolitans twenty years before. Indeed, as this fact must have been so generally known, we think the contrary assertion was intended as an ironical, and as such a most impertinent hint to the major, that it *would* be proper for him totally to retire from that stage, which his biographer, aware of the untruth, says he has already quitted, insinuating that, unless he does,

'Rideat ac pulset lasciva decentius ætas.'

Misrepresentation the third:

The anecdote in the archbishop of York's life (page 409) respecting Mr. Pitt's revocation of his promise to Dr. Clarke, is not true.

Misrepresentation the fourth:

In lord Gardner's life, the writer (page 515) has confounded lord Bridport's action off L'Orient, with lord

Howe's battle in the preceding year; and indeed has made a mistake in almost every page; which, we shall take this opportunity of assuring our readers, is the case throughout the whole volume, so little is the information to be depended upon, though so pompously promised to be given with unbiassed accuracy, in this burlesque upon biography. We shall however content ourselves with referring to a few more instances of its incorrectness; and not quote the whole book, which we might safely do, to justify our decided reprobation of so impudent an imposture.

Misrepresentation the fifth:

In Dr. Jackson's life the world is, for the first time, informed that he is a great mathematician. The doctor, who is a modest man, will, we are confident, be as much astonished at this piece of news as his fellow collegians:

'Miraturque novas frondes, et non sua poma.'

We are told also (what will greatly offend the doctor) that, 'under his auspices, his college has produced mathematicians, who may, at this moment, stand in competition with the best mathematicians of the sister university.'

This is disgusting; for, however equal may be our respect for the *general* learning of Oxford and Cambridge, the *infant* of Dr. Jackson, 'mewling and puking in its nurse's arms,' must not, cannot, be compared with that *giant* who pursues his philosophic lucubrations

'Where willowy Camus lingers with delight.'

We have done—for ever done we hope—with the authors of 'Public Characters': annually however if they appear, if neither neglect can wither, nor just censure shame them, annually shall we print (as we doubt not there will be occasion) a list of their misrepresentations. Indeed we might say to them, as Gibbon did to Mr. Davies, 'there is a monosyllable most applicable to many of your assertions;'—but as such inuendoes even are too indelicate for these gentle times, we shall only compliment our authors upon their powers of invention, so strikingly displayed in the above, concerning Dr. Jackson and his mathematical *élèves*, as a good finale to such a chorus of falsehoods as we have 'set in full' before our readers.

We now come to—Ignorant Mutilations.

The first:

In Mr. Grey's life there is no mention of his having been educated either at Eton or Trinity college, Cambridge.

The second :

The writer of Mr. Tierney's life does not know that he was a student of Peterhouse, Cambridge.

The third :

In lord Lauderdale's life nothing is said of his fracas with the duke of Richmond, or of his rencontre with general Arnold.

These gentlemen must not pretend to publish the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, and at the same time leave out material circumstances that tend to the development of character, from a fear of offending or from ignorance. The certainty indeed that the former of these obstacles will always operate against any impartial account of living persons, and the more than probability that the latter will always preclude any accurate or full information concerning the private actions of our cotemporaries, and, as it is seen in the book before us, even the public ones; these, are two strong arguments against the encouragement of every work of this nature. Nor must we be told by these writers, that some of the above omissions relate to things too immaterial to be recorded in their important pages. They who have kindly made the world acquainted with Dr. Jackson's usual residence in the long vacation; they who have introduced us into major Topham's privacy; they who have obtruded Mr. Kett upon the public, *volentem nolentibus*, himself unwitting, upon us unwilling; they, with an ill-grace, would shelter any omission under the plea of any insignificance.

We shall conclude by noticing, separately, a species of error (page 413) which we cannot place under either of the above heads—Ignorance without doubt occasioned it; but then it is not a mutilation, nor was it meant for an untruth.

In the duchess of Devonshire's life, the writer speaks of the celebrated battles of Hockstet and Blenheim; not knowing, it is plain, that the battles (as he pluralizes and misnames them) of Hockstet and Blenheim were one and the same battle. This is a most curious specimen of modern historical information.

In fine, we avow it to be our wish, that the publication of the lives of those, of whom, for the most part, it is immaterial whether the biography be posthumous, or co-existent, or non-existent, should be discontinued. However, as this is hopeless, we shall leave the book with all its fulsome nonsense, to load the shelves of those ('being on most occasions a large majority'*) who for several years past have been in the habit of purchasing it, and of whom we shall merely observe that they and their money are soon

* Gibbon.

parted. We shall leave it, we say, to the patronage of those lovers of wholesale panegyric, for whose stomachs nothing is too gross; who drain the cup of flattery, dregs and all; and to the cool contempt (for it is unworthy to excite so strong a feeling as disgust) of every man of sense and principle in the kingdom, unfortunate enough to be induced by any motive to read the 'Public Characters.'

ART. X.—*The Life of Sir Walter Raleigh, Knight.* By Arthur Cayley, junior, Esq. 2 vols. quarto. 1l. 16s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1805.

THOSE who have heard of the mill erected at Camberwell by the ingenious Mr. Neckinger, for the reproduction of paper, will perhaps find themselves enabled to contemplate with more composure the alarming and inordinate consumption of that perishable article, occasioned by the present universal demand for information. But let sanguine credulity beware of expecting unqualified good from the most promising and alluring projects. If, on the one hand, by this contrivance many a ream may be redeemed from destruction, and cleansed from impurity; it must, on the other hand, be recollected, that the scheme may furnish a most dangerous encouragement to the manufacture of books, already too daring and extensive. If the Roman satirist exclaimed, '*Stulta est clementia, perituræ parcere chartæ,*' what remorse shall restrain the most lavish and wanton sacrifices of this commodity in future, when the modesty and the conscience of our literary artisans shall be appeased by the reflection that their most unsuccessful labours will not condemn their sheets to hopeless dissolution; but that a process is at hand which shall restore them to existence, and to the chance of becoming the instruments of more happy and useful endeavours? We are disposed to believe that the diffidence of the author of this publication must have been subdued by some reflections of this nature.

If 'imagination may trace the noble dust of Alexander, till it be found stopping a bung-hole,' it may also be permitted, without incurring the charge of 'considering the matter too curiously,' to follow a changeable ream of mortal paper through all the 'varieties of untried being' to which this valuable invention might introduce it; and to consider the many directly opposite services into which it might be pressed in the course of its transmigrations. Those leaves which infected one generation with the poison of sedition and infidelity, might heal and purify the next with the balm of loyalty and religion: and those which in one age diffused the opiate

influence of gentle dulness from many a column of soporific commentary, might enliven another with the graces of wit, or the attractions of eloquence. What waggon-loads of plain good sense and unsophisticated feeling might we not hope from the resurrection of the myriads of volumes which are annually sacrificed at the altar of sickly sentiment in Leadenhall-street! And what stores of liberal and temperate discussion might not be expected in another state of existence from those monumental tomes of controversy and polemics, which now repose in venerable silence, in our repositories of learning. If we might reasonably entertain the pleasing hypothesis that the materials exposed to the Neckingeric chemistry should be destined to repair in one period the offences committed in a former, we should hope that those elements which have been doomed to walk the earth in the shape of the Rights of Man, or Political Justice, may hereafter be exalted in the scale of literary existence, and be made the instruments of teaching the purest doctrines of moral and political wisdom: and we should gladly admit the consolatory belief that the volumes before us may at no very distant point of time, and in some new state of being, be appointed to exhibit a just specimen of entertaining and instructive biography.

But alas! our duty calls us from the contemplation of the visionary perfections which these pages may, in another form, be destined to present to our posterity, and compels us to inform the public of the purposes to which Mr. Cayley has now applied them. And truly they have much to hope for in a state of regeneration, and may reasonably expect to be amply indemnified for having been made the instruments of an experiment in the mystery of making books, as adventurous as ever we recollect to have witnessed. An age which has seen the biography of Geoffrey Chaucer stretched by the Procrustic machinery of Mr. Godwin to the length of two prodigious quartos, will perhaps regard without alarm the life of Raleigh spread over a publication whose dimensions are comparatively moderate. But in times less accustomed to the artifices of compilation, it would be naturally inquired why an authentic narrative of all that can interest curiosity in the story of the worthy knight might not be conveniently compressed within the limits of a modest pamphlet; and how an author who introduces himself to the public with humble professions of modesty, could provide himself with courage to transcribe and stitch together the materials for a life of sir W. Raleigh, and send the crude congeries into the world under the name of biography. Of the 648 pages which compose the present work, scarcely 100, on the most liberal calculation, will be found to belong to him who styles himself the writer. The

rest of the bulk is filled up by prodigal transcription of authorities and letters, and documents of every description : forming together a heavy mass of cumbrous knowledge, tedious from its minuteness, and unnecessary because most of the sources from whence it is collected are of no very difficult access. Mr. Cayley's amiable diffidence in his own powers, is indeed visible in every page ; it scarcely permits him to trust himself with the composition of ten lines together ; and it is not uncommon to find a single paragraph adorned with the motley contributions of almost as many authors as it contains sentences. Of this a curious instance may be seen in the first volume, page 275.

Of this method it is immediately perceived that it loses in beauty and attraction more than it gains in authenticity ; and that therefore it is likely to leave unaccomplished the only purposes for which authenticity is valuable ; for of what use is the fidelity of that information which no one is tempted to acquire ? From a writer of biography or history is expected a narrative luminously arranged, enriched with just remark, and enlivened with judicious illustration. The alchemy of his mind must extract the spirit and the essence from the mass of his materials, and reject the grosser parts. We turn away disgusted and frightened from a mouldering pile of documents and records ; and instead of feeling gratitude for the light of genuine and original intelligence, are angry with our conductor for blinding us with the dust of archives, libraries, and museums.

The book commences with two pages of learning on the name and family of sir Walter, which we may dismiss without further notice, as the author informs us that 'the enquiry only tends to convince us of the difficulty of reconciling the several opinions.' We then learn that the subject of these memoirs was the younger son of sir Walter Raleigh, of Fardel in the parish of Cornwood near Plymouth, by his third wife Catharine, daughter of sir Philip Champernon, of Modbury, and relict of Otho Gilbert, esq. of Compton in Devonshire : that he was born at Hayes in the parish of Budley in 1552 ; a year on which the following important observation is gravely transcribed into the text from a manuscript quoted by Oldys, for the gratification of those who are always on the watch for a wonder :

'This year was remarkable, first for a strange shoal of fish which wandered up the Thames so high, till the river no longer retained any brackishness ; and secondly, for that it was stained with the blood of the noble Seymer duke of Somerset ; events surprisingly analogous both to the life of this adventurous voyager, sir Walter Raleigh, whose delight was in the hazardous discovery of unfrequented coasts ; and also to his unfortunate death' !!! p. 5.

We are next informed that he was educated at Oxford, and that he did not study the law; that he served with reputation in France, and after six years of activity and enterprize returned to England in 1575. About this time a poem was published by sir Walter *Rawely* of the Middle Temple, prefixed to a satire entitled the *Steel Glass*, by G. Gascoigne, esq. which gives Mr. Cayley an inestimable opportunity to display the subtlety of his talents for inference. The arguments which lead him to think it probable that Raleigh was the author of these lines, notwithstanding the suspicious orthography of the name, seem to stand thus:—Gascoigne was acquainted with lord Grey, under whom Raleigh served in Ireland; moreover Gascoigne, like Raleigh, had led a life of foreign travel and military service, and assumed the same motto which was used by Raleigh on his arms: it is therefore likely that Raleigh was the author of lines prefixed to a satire written by Gascoigne. Q. E. D. (p. 10, 11.) His expedition to the Netherlands under sir John Norris, his unsuccessful embarkation for America with his unfortunate kinsman sir Humphry Gilbert, and his services in Ireland, occupy the remainder of the first chapter.

Of Raleigh's introduction at court our information is imperfect. The old story, however, of his spreading his plush mantle in the mire to make a carpet for queen Elizabeth, is here repeated. It appears that soon after this he enjoyed much of her majesty's confidence and favour. But the life of a courtier was insupportable to his active spirit: accordingly in the year 1584, the thirty-second of his age, he obtained a patent for discoveries, under the conviction that a large tract of valuable territory was to be found to the north of the gulph of Florida. And here either the modesty or the indolence of Mr. Cayley begins to operate very powerfully. Impressed with the importance of such a subject as the discovery of Virginia, he shrinks from the task of relating it, and hopes that he shall not trespass too much on the patience of his readers by transcribing the narrative of every navigator employed in that service by Raleigh. Accordingly Hackluyt's Collection of Voyages is put in immediate requisition, and the seventy pages which follow are almost entirely occupied with a literal insertion of the journals and log-books which that celebrated naval historian has preserved of the four first voyages to Virginia. Room however is allowed for the intelligence that during the period of these expeditions Raleigh was chosen to represent the county of Devonshire in parliament, and before the year 1585 was knighted; that in 1586 he was appointed seneschal of Cornwall and Exeter, and lord warden of the stannaries; and in 1587 promoted to the distinguished posts of captain of the guard to her majesty, and lieutenant-general of the county

of Cornwall. In the latter office he displayed the most vigorous activity and patriotic disinterestedness during the alarm of the armada, and is named among many of the most distinguished men of those times who augmented the naval force of their country by ships equipped and manned at their own expence.

The discovery of Virginia, and the distresses of the infant colony, had cost Raleigh 40,000*l.*,—an expenditure which his own patrimony, augmented as it was by the bounty of the crown, could not enable him to support without serious inconvenience, and which soon warned him of the folly of continuing sole proprietor of a new-born settlement. Accordingly in the year 1589 he assigned over to a company of gentlemen and merchants of London the right of continuing the plantation, reserving to himself a fifth part of all the gold and silver ore. If another edition of this work should be called for, we should be thankful for some explanation of Mr. Cayley's reasons for thinking that 'the difficulties the company had to struggle with, prove the faultless conduct of the original proprietor.' Vol. I. p. 107.

Soon after this period it seems that the favour of Elizabeth was withdrawn from Raleigh, and transferred to Essex the new favourite, who had soon influence enough to chase every rival from the court. Of the immediate cause of her majesty's displeasure our information is obscure and imperfect; and we can only learn that he was obliged, during its continuance, to retire to Ireland. He there visited the poet Spenser, and encouraged him to proceed with the '*Fairy Queen*,' the first three books of which were committed to the press under his patronage. But we hasten to that period of his life in which he suffered still more severely from the royal indignation, in consequence of an amour with the lady whom he afterwards married, the beautiful Elizabeth, daughter of the celebrated statesman and ambassador sir Nicholas Trockmorton, and one of the maids of honour to the queen; an intrigue with which her majesty was so highly displeased that she committed both parties to the Tower. If we may believe the following singularly curious and entertaining epistle from sir Arthur Gorges to sir Robert Cecil, and written most probably during his confinement, his banishment from the presence of the queen was the severest part of his punishment.

'Honourable Sir!—I cannot chuse but advertise you of a strange tragedy that this day had like to have fallen out between the captain of the guard and the lieutenant of the ordnance, if I had not by great chance come at the very instant to have turned it into a comedy. For upon the report of her majesty's being at sir George Caryl's, sir W. Raleigh having gazed and sighed a long time at

his study-window, from whence he might discern the barges and boats about the Blackfriars'-stairs, suddenly he brake out into a great distemper, and swore that his enemies had on purpose brought her majesty thither to break his gall in sunder with Tantalus' torment, that when she went away he might see his death before his eyes; with many such-like conceits. And as a man transported with passion, he swore to sir George Carew, that he would disguise himself, and get into a pair of ears, to ease his mind but with a sight of the queen, or else he protested his heart would break. But the trusty jailor would none of that, for displeasing the higher powers as he said, which he more respected than the feeding of his humour, and so flatly refused to permit him. But, in conclusion upon this dispute, they fell flat out to cholerick outrageous words, with straining and struggling at the doors, that all lameness was forgotten, and in the fury of the conflict, the jailor he had his new periwig torn off his crown, and yet here the battle ended not, for at last they had gotten out their daggers; which when I saw, I played the stickler between them, and so purchased such a rap on the knuckles, that I wished both their pates broken; and so with much ado they stayed their brawl to see my bloody fingers. At the first I was ready to break with laughing to see them two scramble and brawl like madmen, until I saw the iron walking, and then I did my best to appease the fury. As yet I cannot reconcile them by any persuasions, for sir Walter swears, that he shall hate him for so restraining him from the sight of his mistress, while he lives; for that he knows not (as he said) whether ever he shall see her again, when she is gone the progress. And sir George, on his side, swears that he had rather he should lose his longing, than that he would draw on him her majesty's displeasure by such liberty. Thus they continue in malice and snarling, but I am sure all the smart lighted on me. I cannot tell whether I should more allow of the passionate lover, or the trusty jailor. But if yourself had seen it as I did, you would have been as heartily merry and sorry, as ever you were in all your life for so short a time. I pray you pardon my hasty written narration, which I acquaint you with, hoping you will be the peace-maker. But, good sir, let nobody know thereof, for I fear sir Walter Raleigh will shortly grow to be Orlando Furioso, if the bright Angelica persevere against him a little longer. Your honour's, humbly to be commanded, A. GORGES.' Vol. I. p. 124.

This furious impatience of banishment from the sight of his royal mistress, very curiously illustrates the romantic impetuosity of Raleigh's character, and the extravagant and Quixotic spirit of the times. Perhaps, however, the sincerity of sir Walter's anguish may reasonably be doubted; and all this violence of despair may have been no more than an unmanly artifice to accelerate his release from prison. He might hope that the extremity of his sufferings might be reported to the queen, who is well known to have readily believed all that her courtiers could tell her of the force of her personal attractions,

and who might be disposed to shorten the punishment of one who at least had the merit of acknowledging the irresistible power of her charms. Who can believe that the following laboured and pedantic sorrows were not poured out in hopes that they might reach the royal ear?

‘My heart was never broken ’till this day, that I hear the queen goes away so far off, whom I have followed so many years with so great love and desire in so many journeys, and am now left behind her in a dark prison, all alone. While she was yet near at hand, that I might hear of her once in two or three days, my sorrows were the less, but even now my heart is cast into the depth of all misery. I that was wont to behold her riding like Alexander, hunting like Diana, walking like Venus, the gentle wind blowing her fair hair about her pure cheeks, like a nymph, sometime sitting in the shade like a goddess, sometime singing like an angel, sometime playing like Orpheus; behold the sorrow of this world! once amiss hath bereaved me of all. O glory, that only shineth in misfortune! what is become of thy assurance? All wounds have scars but that of fantasy; all affections their relenting but that of woman-kind.’

Vol. I. p. 126.

The letter that contains this passage was addressed by Raleigh to sir Robert Cecil; and to whom could it have been more judiciously directed with a view to its communication to Elizabeth?

His submissions, it seems, could procure him no more than a release from confinement; he was still forbidden to approach the ‘celestial beauties’ of his sovereign, and solaced his retirement with the formation of that scheme which in the reign of her successor terminated in his ruin. And here Mr. Cayley’s engaging distrust of his own faculties returns upon him so forcibly as to oblige him to resort again to Hackluyt’s repository of nautical history, upon whom he levies another prodigious contribution of nearly one hundred and fifty solid pages! His diffidence indeed seems in a great degree to have clouded his reason; and he appears to forget how soon the attention is exhausted by a minute enumeration of petty difficulties and adventures, and by journals of the changes of the wind and the revolutions of the weather. It is not easy to describe the impatience and indignation with which we beheld his volume swelled by the transcription of narratives by which we learned how the discoverers of Guiana changed their course ‘from west-south-west, and stood away west-and-by-south;’ how ‘they sounded in the morning, and had ground at thirty fathoms,’ and how ‘they sounded again in the night divers times, and had twelve, ten, and nine fathoms water:’ we followed sir Walter with reluctance and weariness through his tedious navigation up the river Oroonoko, and read with the most frigid indifference his extravagant ‘tales of salvages

and men of Ind,' and of nations 'whose heads do grow beneath their shoulders;' together with his long lists of barbarous names; his Iwarawakeri and Oroonokoponi, his Cassepagotos, Eparegotos, and Arrawagotos. Our limits will not permit us to detail the ambiguous evidence on which the heat of his imagination raised the fabric of visionary wealth which was to eclipse the splendour and tower above the greatness of Spain. His own narrative (which among other pieces Mr. Cayley has printed at length from Hackluyt) appears to be the work of a man who believed what he related. He gravely records the migration of a younger brother of Atabalipa to the kingdom of Guiana, where another empire arose out of the fragments of that which was destroyed by Pizarro; and he mentions seriously certain old Peruvian prophecies, which predicted that by the English this new nation was to be delivered from the barbarity of its conquerors. He preserves the confused accounts of all the Spaniards who first visited Guiana, and particularly the incredible story of Martinez, who, we are told, was carried blindfold by the natives through the whole country to Manoa, where he resided seven months, and which from its endless stores of gold he christened El Dorado. We are then assured that several Spaniards who were dispatched thither by Berreo governor of Trinidad, were dismissed richly laden, but were unfortunately robbed and murdered on their return by certain unmannerly knaves among the savages before they could realize the hopes of their impatient countrymen. The reports of the Indians were also eagerly heard and implicitly relied on: these were addressed both to the curiosity and the avarice of the adventurers; for they at one time promised regions teeming with treasure, and at another told of nations 'with eyes in their shoulders, and mouths in the middle of their breasts;—which (continues sir Walter) though it may be thought a mere fable, yet for mine own part I am resolved it is true, because every child in the provinces of Arroimaia and Canuri affirm the same; and their name is Ewaipanoma.' Vol. I. p. 203. A fancy occupied by dreams like these was in no condition to resist the captivating story of the gold-dust collected from the lake Cassipa, and was prepared to find that every stone on the banks of the Caroli promised gold and silver by its complexion. Vol. I. p. 202.

This account was received by the nation with coldness and suspicion. But the incredulity of the public did not deter Raleigh from his project; and copious relations are transcribed by Mr. Cayley of two more expeditions which Raleigh fitted out, but did not conduct in person.

From the scene which exhibits Raleigh as 'capable of the

most extravagant credulity or most impudent imposture*, we gladly pass to that in which he appears in the character of a patriot and a hero. The year 1596, memorable for the destruction of the Spanish fleet at Cadiz, was perhaps the most glorious of his life. In this perilous service he was honoured with a distinguished command, which gave him an opportunity to display the most masterly skill and steady valour. The success of the expedition may perhaps be in a great degree ascribed to his intrepidity and conduct; and the queen was so fully convinced of the value of his services, that the influence of Essex could not prevent his restoration to her confidence. It was not to be expected that the author would willingly tax his own powers with the description of this splendid engagement; fortunately his labour is spared and his diffidence relieved by an authentic narrative by sir Walter himself, with the insertion of which we were not greatly displeased, as it relates the particulars of the attack with considerable spirit, though in a style which shews that he was not disposed to form an unfavourable estimate of his own merits. Vol. I. p. 267—274.

The rest of the first volume is occupied chiefly by an account of the ill-concerted expedition to the Azores in 1597, in which Raleigh excited the resentment of Essex by a daring breach of orders in commencing alone an attack on the island of Fayal, and thus robbing him of his share in the glory of its success. The jealousy of the rivals was afterwards thinly veiled by the treacherous disguise of seeming cordiality; but at the execution of Essex, Raleigh, it is thought, was unable to repress some indecent symptoms of triumphant satisfaction, which rendered him extremely unpopular, and possibly led many to believe that he was actively instrumental in the ruin of this idol of the multitude. That he was persuaded of the necessity of sacrificing the favourite, will scarcely be doubted after the perusal of the following letter to Cecil, which has been preserved among the Burleigh papers.

‘Sir, I am not wise enough to give you advice; but if you take it for a good counsel to relent toward this tyrant, you will repent it when it shall be too late. His malice is fixed, and will not evaporate by any of your mild courses; for he will ascribe the alteration to her majesty’s pusillanimity, and not to your good nature, knowing that you work but upon her humour, and not out of any love toward him. The less you make him, the less he shall be able to harm you and yours; and if her majesty’s favour fail him, he will again decline to a common person. For after-revenges,

* Hume.

fear them not; for your own father was esteemed to be the contriver of Norfolk's ruin, yet his son* followeth your father's son, and loveth him. Humours of men succeed not, but grow by occasions and accidents of time and power. Somerset made no revenge on the duke of Northumberland's heirs.†—Northumberland that now is, thinks not of Hatton's issue ‡—Kelloway lives that murdered the brother of Horsey; and Horsey let him go by all his lifetime. I could name you a thousand of those; and therefore after-fears are but prophecies, or rather conjectures from causes remote—look to the present, and you do wisely. His son shall be the youngest earl of England but one, and if his father be now kept down, Will. Cecil § shall be able to keep as many men at his heels as he, and more too. He may also match in a better house than his, and so that fear is not worth the fearing. But if the father continue, he will be able to break the branches, and pull up the tree root and all. Lose not your advantage; if you do, I read your destiny.' Vol. I. p. 313.

In Elizabeth's last parliament sir Walter represented the county of Cornwall; and the specimens which are here presented of his parliamentary talents, display much sound judgment and enlightened policy. His remarks on the statute of tillage we shall recommend to those of our modern legislators who imagine that the prosperity of agriculture may be promoted by parliamentary interference.

'I think this law fit to be repealed. For many poor men are not able to find seed to sow so much ground as they are bound to plough, which they must do or incur the penalty of the statute. Beside, all nations abound with corn. France offered the queen to serve Ireland with corn at sixteen shillings a quarter, which is but two shillings a bushel. If we should sell it so here; the ploughman would be beggared. The Low-countryman and the Hollander, who never sow corn, hath by his industry such plenty, that they will serve other nations. The Spaniard, who often wanteth corn, had we never so much plenty, would never be beholden to the Englishman for it, neither to the Low-countrymen nor to France, but will fetch it even of the very Barbarian. And that which the Barbarian hath been suing for these two hundred years (I mean for traffic of corn into Spain) this king in policy hath set at liberty of himself, because he will not be beholden unto other nations. And therefore, I think the best course is, to set it at liberty and leave every man free, which is the desire of a true Englishman.'

Vol. I. p. 318.

* Probably his second son.'

† The duke having influenced Edward VI. to deprive him of his titles and lands.'

‡ Sir Christopher Hatton having been suspected of the murder of the late earl of Northumberland in the Tower.'

§ Only son of sir Robert.'

The second volume opens with the following pompous sentence :

‘ With the reign of queen Elizabeth the good fortune of sir Walter Raleigh sank to rise no more ; and those talents, which, under the smiles of a female sovereign of singular penetration, had been called forth and directed to the noblest ends, were doomed to fade and wither under the frowns of her successor.’

Of the causes to which may be ascribed James’s unfavourable opinion of Raleigh, little can now be known, though much may be conjectured. Our author reasonably imagines that sir Walter suffered severely from the representations of Essex and Cecil in their correspondence with James during the life of Elizabeth. It seems also that he was one of those who honestly declared their disgust at the introduction of those multitudes of the king’s rapacious countrymen who ‘ were then suffered like locusts to devour this kingdom.’ Vol. II. p. 3. Besides,

‘ The enterprising and martial character of sir Walter was far from congenial to the disposition of James ; and an offer which he made on the king’s accession of invading Spain with two thousand men, free of expence to the crown, as well as a Discourse which he wrote, touching a war with Spain, and the protection of the Netherlands, were not likely to promote his cause with the new sovereign.’ Vol. II. p. 4.

The first symptoms of the royal suspicion and displeasure were his loss of the wine-patent, and office of captain of the guard, both which he enjoyed under Elizabeth : and ‘ three months had not elapsed since the king’s arrival, before he was charged with treasonable practices against his government.’ Vol. II. p. 5.

This conspiracy, Mr. Cayley judiciously remarks, is an enigma of state which has never met with a satisfactory solution. The following is an extract of a letter from Cecil to sir Thomas Parry, ambassador in France, which we learn is printed in this work for the first time, and which contains an obscure account of a wild and brainless project to seize the person of the king, and extort from him a toleration of the Romish faith, and a distribution of the most profitable posts of government among the conspirators. Part of the scheme was to treat with count Aremberg, the imperial ambassador, to be employed for treasonable purposes which are not very clearly explained. The person employed in this criminal negotiation was lord Cobham, who accused Raleigh of co-operating in these practices.

‘ The lord Cobham being called in question, he did first confess

his own treasons as above said, and then did absolutely before eleven counsellors accuse Raleigh to be privy to his Spanish course; with farther addition and exclamation, that he had never dealt herein but by his own incessant provocation. Whereupon he was committed to the Tower; where, though he was used with all humanity, lodged and attended as well as in his own house; yet, one afternoon, while divers of us were in the Tower examining some of these prisoners, he attempted to have murdered himself. Whereof when we were advertised, we came to him, and found him in some agony, seeming to be unable to endure his misfortunes, and protesting innocence, with carelessness of life. And in that humour he had wounded himself under the right pap, but no way mortally, being in truth rather a cut than a stab, and now very well cured both in body and mind. What to judge of this case yet we know not; for, how voluntarily and authentically soever the lord Cobham did before us all accuse him in all our hearing, and most constantly, yet, being newly examined, he seemeth now to clear sir Walter in most things, and to take all the burthen to himself. So, as the matter concerning the blood of a gentleman, now apparent soever it is *in foro conscientie*, yet you may be assured that no severity shall be used toward him, for which there shall not be sufficient proof. Which is very like there will be, notwithstanding this retractation; because it is confessed, that since their being in the Tower, intelligence hath passed from one to another, wherein Raleigh expostulated his unkind using him.

Vol. II. p. 9.

Then follows the 'trial of sir Walter Raleigh, knight, at Winton, Nov. 17, 1603,' printed verbatim from Mr. Hargrave's edition of the State Trials!! This is an innovation so daring, that our duty calls upon us to visit it with very severe censures. If such a precedent be suffered to be recorded without a most vigorous protest, we cannot undertake to measure the alarming extent of its consequences. We have no security against the adoption of the same method in the Life of every state-criminal who may become a future subject of biography. We are most unfeignedly thankful that this expedient did not occur to those who were engaged in the publication of the life and correspondence of the illustrious John Wilkes! If they had been aware of this new ingredient in the materia medica of book-making, the world would most probably have been enlightened with the trial of the informations for 'the North Briton, No. 45,' and the 'Essay on Woman.' These might have been consistently followed by sir James Burrows's report of the case of the King v. John Wilkes on the amendment of the record and the reversal of the outlawry; which by an easy connection might have introduced the case of Money v. Leach on the important subject of general warrants, and the still more luminous and interesting

one of *Entick v. Carrington*, from Mr. Hargrave's *State Trials*, by which that question was finally set at rest. If every thing is to be inserted which the writer imagines to have any tendency to illustrate the history of the individual or the spirit and character of the times, there is no end to transfusion from one book into another. Upon this principle Mr. Cayley might have gravely transcribed from Hume into his work the reigns of queen Elizabeth and James I. His example indeed is not likely to be very ensnaring by the perfections with which it is associated. But in an age when every contrivance for increasing the magnitude of volumes is so eagerly sought and so readily adopted, we think it right to recommend to the public the most vigilant caution against a repetition of the experiment.

We cordially approve Mr. Cayley's sentiments respecting this infamous trial. It presents such 'an unsightly tissue of abuse, malevolence, and oppression,' as fixes everlasting disgrace upon those who were then the ministers of our law. The only testimony upon which he was found guilty was that of lord Cobham, a man contemptible for his weakness and timidity; and with him the judges refused to confront the prisoner: they suffered to be read in evidence a bare deposition of this wretched nobleman, which he afterwards expressly and solemnly retracted, and which the following curious anecdote, if authentic, proves to have been forged.

'Queen Ann, that brave princess, was in a desperate and some believed an incurable disease, whereof the physicians were at the farthest end of their studies to find the cause, at a non plus for the cure. Sir Walter Raleigh, being by his long studies an admirable chemist, undertook and performed the cure; for which he would receive no other reward, but that her Majesty would procure that certain lords might be sent to examine Cobham, whether he had accused sir Walter Raleigh of treason at any time under his hand. The king, at the queen's request, and in justice could do no less, sends six lords (which I take were the duke of Lennox, Salisbury, Worcester, Suffolk, sir George Carew, and sir Julius Caesar) to demand of Cobham, whether he had not under his hand accused sir Walter Raleigh at Winchester upon that treason he was arraigned for. Cobham did protest never, nor could he; but, said he, "that villain Wade did often solicit me, and not prevailing that way, got me by a trick to write my name upon a piece of white paper, which I, thinking nothing, did. So that if any charge came under my hand, it was forged by that villain Wade, by writing something above my hand without my consent or knowledge." These six returning to the king, the rest made Salisbury their spokesman, who said "Sir, my lord Cobham hath made good all that ever he wrote or said." Where it is to be noted, that this was but an equivocating trick in

Salisbury. For it was true that Cobham had made good whatever he had writ (that being but in truth to very nothing)—but never wrote he any thing to accuse Raleigh. By which you may see the baseness of these lords, the credulity of the king, and the ruin of sir Walter Raleigh.*

It is well known that the king forbore to order the execution of the sentence, and confined Raleigh to the Tower during pleasure. (See a very curious letter of sir Dudley Carleton to Mr. J. Chamberlain, 2 v. p. 70.) Sir W.'s confinement lasted twelve years, during which time he devoted himself to philosophy and literature, and to his imprisonment we are indebted for his '*History of the World*.' At last, in the year 1615, by bribery and change of favourites, he obtained his liberty, and immediately resumed his favourite scheme of a settlement in Guiana. He accordingly accepted a commission from the king for that purpose, though without a pardon, and with the terrors of a legal sentence hanging over his head. For the account of this disastrous and fatal voyage we are referred to sir Walter's letter to secretary Winwood, and another to his wife, written from St. Christopher's, on his homeward passage; and lastly to his Apology for the Voyage, written on his return to this country, with the appended address to lord Carew, who was probably to present the Apology to his majesty. These are printed at large, and occupy about forty toilsome pages of merciless repetition. On his return to England, Gondomar the Spanish ambassador remonstrated loudly against the piratical character of the expedition, and plainly intimated that nothing would satisfy his court for the plunder of the settlement of St. Thomas by Raleigh and his adventurers, but the sacrifice of the offender. He was accordingly arrested on his landing at Plymouth; and after delaying his journey to London by the cowardly stratagem of feigning sickness, and the meditation of schemes for his escape, was at last committed to the Tower, and his former sentence soon put in execution; it being the opinion of the chancellor and other commissioners, that being attainted of high treason he could not be drawn in question for any other offence, and that consequently his guilt in exceeding the powers of his commission in the adventure to Guiana could not become the subject of legal investigation. This part of the narrative, by the help of the letters and original papers, which Mr. Cayley thinks it necessary to transcribe, is lengthened out to forty pages more. The concluding chapter contains a list of Raleigh's works, and some account of

* See the court and character of King James. 2d edit. 12mo. 1651, p. 35.

his character and person. Of his profusion in dress the following instances will not perhaps easily be credited in the present age.

'We are told that in queen Elizabeth's reign he possessed a suit of clothes beset with jewels, to the value of 60,000*l.* and the Jesuit Drexellius informs us that the precious stones on his court-shoes exceeded 6600 pieces of gold in value.' Vol. II. p. 202.

Sir Walter's 'Instructions to his Son and to Posterity' are subjoined. This manual contains many valuable maxims of practical wisdom, and was so popular that four editions of it were published before the first collection of Raleigh's works in 1651. (Vol. II. p. 213.) We are then indulged with an Appendix of 114 pages, consisting of 'scarce pieces, illustrative of sir W. Raleigh's history.' We apprehend that the scarcity of these pieces forms their principal value. By far the greater part of them might, without loss, have been suffered to repose in oblivion. Among these may be reckoned queen Elizabeth's letters patent to Raleigh, concerning Virginia; Raleigh's deed of assignment respecting Virginia; his patent for the government of Jersey; the grant of his goods and chattels to trustees for his use on his attainder; and lastly, the warrant for sir Walter's execution. What entertainment these musty precedents can afford to any but pleaders and conveyancers, we are unable to conjecture. We shall spare ourselves the labour of giving any account of the rest of the articles in this Appendix, as they are fifteen in number. They conclude with an examination by Mr. Cayley of Mr. Hume's arguments against sir Walter Raleigh, which we predict will soon become a very 'scarce piece.'

Of the poetry ascribed to Raleigh, which is interspersed through these pages, but little can be found which will raise him above the rank of those accomplished gentlemen who amuse their leisure with versification. Puttenham, however, a cotemporary critic, seems to have thought otherwise: 'for ditty and amorous ode, he finds sir Walter's vein most lofty, insolent, and passionate.' But his laurels are now faded, and his extravagant and laboured conceits will by a modern judgment be rejected with disgust. The verses said to be composed by him the evening before his execution, exhibit a very curious specimen of his taste. Anticipating the joys of heaven, he promises himself that he shall—

'Taste of nectar's suckets,
At those clear wells
Where sweetness dwells,
Drawn up by saints in chrystal buckets!'

His imagination was at that time naturally filled with the forms and proceedings of criminal justice. These images he transfers to a higher tribunal.

‘ From thence to heaven’s bribeless hall,
Where no corrupted voices brawl,
No conscience molten into gold,
No forg’d accuser bought or sold,
No cause deferr’d, no vain-spent journey,
For there Christ is the king’s-attorney ;
Who pleads for all without degrees,
And he hath *angels*, but no *fees*.

‘ And when the twelve grand million jury
Of our sins, with direful fury,
Against our souls black verdicts give,
Christ pleads his death, and then we live.

‘ Be thou my speaker, taintless pleader !
Unblotted lawyer ! true proceeder !
Thou would’st salvation e’en for alms,
Not with a bribed lawyer’s palms.’ Vol. II. p. 169.

But the fame of Raleigh rests on a more solid and durable basis than that of diminutive poetry : and the mind that could achieve ‘ the History of the World ’ might well be allowed the recreation of a few idle rhymes. In this great work, if ‘ he has produced an historical dissertation, but seldom rises to the majesty of history,’* still the variety of its learning, and the singular elegance of its style, are sufficient to secure its author a distinguished rank among the benefactors to English literature.

Of the character of Raleigh a very feeble sketch is given ; and perhaps at this distance of time a complete delineation of it would be impossible. It is however sufficiently clear that he possessed a mind of the most vigorous and versatile activity. His understanding was naturally sound and masculine ; but he was unhappily too ready to surrender it to the dominion of a wild and romantic imagination. He appears to be chargeable with credulity rather than with a deliberate design to cheat the public ; for it will not easily be credited that he was so profligate and hardened an impostor as to persevere to the moment of his dissolution (see Vol. II. p. 167 and 168) in asserting the existence of the mine in Guiana, without a firm conviction of the truth of his protestations. To the intrepid spirit of enterprise so intimately connected with his ardent fancy, this country is eternally indebted, since he may justly be regarded as the father of our American colonization. He

* Rambler, No. 122.

was singularly admirable for the variety of his accomplishments; he was a consummate seaman, an active and experienced soldier, a polite and profound scholar, and an able politician. Yet his character appears, on the whole, to have been mixed and ambiguous; his temper was impatient and restless, and it would seem, on the accession of James, turbulent and discontented. His mind was incapable of repose, and being repressed from honourable activity by the suspicions of the court, possibly sought employment in the agitation of designs which, though not positively criminal, were at least highly indiscreet. His valour and firmness, in the midst of difficulty and peril, have always been unimpeached; yet his pretended attempt to murder himself when arrested for high treason, and his fictitious sickness on his journey to London after his return from the fatal voyage, are artifices inconsistent with a steady and exalted courage. He was never a favourite with the people till after his trial for high-treason. The hasty and sanguine violence of his manner may possibly have been ill calculated to conciliate benevolence or favour. The injustice and cruelty of his sentence however soon made his cause universally popular; and it may be presumed that he would not have filled so large a space in the eye of posterity, if he had not been a martyr to the shameful weakness and timidity of his sovereign.

Of these volumes, so little is written by Mr. Cayley, that they do not furnish much opportunity for criticism on his style. We have seen enough however to lead us to suspect that he is unused to composition, and not very familiar with the grammatical niceties of language. In page 194, Vol. II. we are told that 'ill fame is *too* adhesive *that* such an opinion, once started, should speedily be forgotten.' And by one of the marginal notices we are informed that 'Raleigh was candidate *as* vice-chamberlain,' Vol. I. p. 201. We cannot allow the propriety of the following expression, p. 201; 'singular talents, with great success in the *assertion* of them,' &c. and in page 193 we read of 'aspersions which, if substantiated, would *retract* from merit.' Some sentences we perused several times before we could reach the meaning, nor could we always confidently promise ourselves that we were successful at last. We are unable exactly to discern the scope of the following profound remark. Of the combination of qualities by which sir Walter was distinguished, we are told that it is 'an union of excellence on which *much might be written*, were we not silenced by the reflexion, that a corresponding union of talent and opportunity can rarely occur;' p. 199. In the same page we find a passage singularly awkward and inelegant:

* Amid the various interests arising by various favourites in the long reign of Elizabeth, no man enjoys the credit of being less immersed by the smiles of the court in the luxuries of it; while no one converted its frowns to greater utility, by being animated by them to enterprize the most honourable.'

We are occasionally roused by a sentence of noisy pomp. Thus the behaviour of the vice-chancellor of Cambridge to Raleigh, on the subject of his wine-patent, is described as the 'haughty insolence of cloistered greatness!' Vol. I. p. 48.

It will be clearly seen by our readers, that Mr. C. has performed but a small part of the duty of a biographer; he has indeed, as we have remarked above, done little more than collect and publish his materials. Of the documents, papers, and letters, which he has laid before the public, many are undoubtedly interesting, and these we would certainly have preserved. But before he ventures on another edition we recommend him to submit his work to the operation of some discriminating intellect, which shall separate the worthless from the valuable parts. Above all, the information respecting Guiana requires judicious abridgment. Few will be found in these days who can interest themselves in the prolix, rambling, and extravagant narratives of our earlier navigators, or busy themselves with a dispute now nearly two centuries extinct. Stripped of its ponderous superfluities, the book will shrink to about one-fourth, or at most one-third, of its present size; and if, in addition to the industry of which he has shown himself capable, Mr. C. will add a course of persevering exercise in the practice of composition, he may at last, instead of two quartos of shapeless information, present the world with a very moderate and comfortable octavo, of agreeable and instructive biography.

ART. XI.—*Travels to the Westward of the Allegany Mountains, in the States of the Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee.* By F. A. Michaux, M. D. Translated from the Original French by B. Lambert. 8vo. 7s. Mawman. 1805.

THE object of M. Michaux' visit to America appears to have been the renewal of a botanical intercourse between the old and new continents, which had been established by his father, who for that purpose had formed a botanic garden in the vicinity of Charlestown. After the father's return to Europe it had been much neglected; but as it is now in possession of the Agricultural Society of Carolina, they propose to continue and to cultivate those useful vegetables of

the old continent, which, from resemblance of climate, promise a fair chance of success. Every institution of this sort is highly laudable, and, when conducted with even ordinary care and intelligence, cannot fail to be a source of much pleasure and utility.

M. Michaux spent the autumn and winter 1801-2 in the collection of seeds in different parts of Carolina, which he sent to Europe; but we are sorry he has given us no account of these humble labours. He does not indeed appear to have originally intended to publish his observations; the work therefore is to be considered as only a hasty sketch of the prominent features which attracted his attention: but as far as it goes, the facts taken notice of are very interesting, and are delivered in a plain unaffected style, inducing us to give full credit to the several parts of his narration.

His short description of Charlestown, New York, and Philadelphia, affords nothing new. About the end of June 1802, he set off on his journey to the western country, travelling in the stages as far as Shippensburg, one hundred and forty miles from Philadelphia. The public conveyances not going farther, travellers are obliged to proceed on foot, or purchase horses. Finding that one of his companions in the stage, an American officer, was going to Pittsburgh, at the head of the Ohio, they agreed to buy a horse for their mutual accommodation, and to ride by turns. The situation of Pittsburgh, placed at the conflux of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers, the union of which forms the Ohio; the rapid advances this town has already made, and is capable of making, in a commercial point of view, render it one of the most interesting spots in the United States.

‘It serves as a staple for the merchandise sent from Philadelphia and Baltimore, at the commencement of the spring and autumn, for the supply of the states of the Ohio and Kentucky, and of the establishment of the Natches.’ p. 72.

‘Pittsburgh is not only the staple of commerce for Philadelphia and Baltimore, with the western country, but it is also that of the numerous establishments which are formed on the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers. The territorial products of these countries find an easy and advantageous vent by the Ohio and the Mississippi. Flour, hams, and smoked pork are the principal articles sent to New Orleans, whence they are re-exported to the West Indies. They also export, for the consumption of Louisiana, bar-iron, coarse cloths, bottles made at Pittsburgh, whiskey, and barrelled butter. A great part of these articles come from Redstone, a very commercial little town, situated on the Monongahela, fifty-five miles above Pittsburgh. All these advantages combined, have,

within ten years, augmented the population and the value of property in this town, tenfold, and still contribute to their increase which every day becomes more rapid.' P. 74.

'The navigation of the Ohio and the Mississippi is so much in use, that the distance from Pittsburgh to New Orleans is now known with great precision: it is fixed at 2,100 miles. The carrying boats generally require, in the spring, from forty-five to fifty days to perform this passage, which two or three persons, in a light vessel (*pirogue*) can accomplish in twenty or twenty-five days.

'It is not perhaps known to many people in Europe, that vessels of a considerable tonnage are built at Pittsburgh, and on the Ohio. One of the principal dock-yards is on the Monongahela, two hundred toises from the last houses in the town. The timbers employed in their construction are the white oak, *Quercus alba*; the red oak, *Quercus rubra*; the black oak, *Quercus tinctoria*; a species of walnut, *Juglans pignut*; the cluster cherry-tree, *Cerasus Virginiana*; and a species of pine, which is used for masts, and also for such parts of the vessel as require a lighter wood. All these woods being in the vicinity, the expenses of construction are less considerable than in the ports of the Atlantic states. The cordage is fabricated at Redstone, or at Lexington, where two good rope-walks are established, which also supply the ships built at Marietta and Louisville. When I was at Pittsburgh, in July. 1802, there was a three-masted vessel on the stocks, of two hundred and fifty tons burthen, and a galliot of ninety, which were nearly finished. These vessels were to go down to New Orleans in the following spring, with a cargo of the productions of the country, and, before reaching the ocean, would make a voyage of near 2200 miles. There is not a doubt but that, hereafter, vessels will be constructed two hundred leagues above the mouth of the Missouri, fifty above that of the Illinois river, and also in the Mississippi, two hundred leagues above the place where these rivers join it: that is to say, six hundred and fifty leagues from the sea; for in the spaces mentioned, their depths are as great as that of the Ohio at Pittsburgh, and it would be wrong to suppose, that, in time, the vast countries watered by these rivers will not be sufficiently populous to execute such enterprises. The rapid population of the three new western states, in circumstances infinitely less favourable, warrant this opinion. These states, in which, thirty years ago, there were scarcely three thousand inhabitants, have at present more than four hundred thousand; and among all the plantations, which on the roads are seldom more than four or five miles asunder, it is very uncommon to find one, even of the most flourishing, of which the proprietor may not be asked, with confidence, from whence he emigrated, or, in the trivial language of the Americans, *From what part of the world are you come?* as if these west and fertile regions were intended to be the point of concentration, and common country of all the inhabitants of the globe. Now if we consider these astonishing and rapid ameliorations,

what ideas shall we not form of the high degree of prosperity to which these western countries may attain, and of the great increase which the commerce, population, and culture of this country will acquire by the union of Louisiana to the American territory.' p. 76.

It is only in spring and autumn, however, that the Ohio is navigable for large vessels so high as Pittsburgh: in the summer the communication with the lower settlements is kept up by boats of a smaller construction, adapted to the existing state of the current.

Between Pittsburgh and Wheeling M. Michaux passed through West Liberty town, where the soil, though unequal, is fertile.

'The produce of the land varies: it yields from fifteen to twenty bushels of wheat per acre, when well cleared, but only from twelve to fifteen when that is not complete; that is to say, while the stumps remain: for in clearing the land, they begin by felling the trees two feet above the ground, and afterwards the stumps are exterminated in succession. It may be proper to observe, that the planters only plough the land once, do not manure it, and never let it lay fallow. The price of the land depends upon its quality. The best, in the proportion of twenty to twenty-five acres of cleared land, in a lot of two or three hundred, is not worth more than three or four piasters an acre; the taxes are about an half-penny or a penny an acre.' p. 95.

Near this place, in passing through a narrow valley, numerous strata of coal were visible five or six feet in thickness; but the country being one continued forest, these mines are not yet worth working. From Wheeling our traveller descended the Ohio in a canoe about twenty-four feet long, eighteen inches wide, and as much in depth; and reached Marietta, a distance of a hundred miles, in three days and a half. The size of the trees growing upon the flats or low grounds between the hills and the river, attracted particular attention. They are larger than in any other part of North America.

'Thirty-six miles before reaching Marietta, we stopped with a person who lives on the right bank: at about fifty paces from his house he showed us a plane-tree, *platanus occidentalis*, of which the trunk was swelled to a prodigious size at a height of two feet: we measured it four feet above the surface of the ground, and found it to be forty-seven feet in circumference. It appeared to keep the same dimensions to the height of fifteen or twenty feet, then it divided into several branches of a proportional thickness.' p. 105.

Marietta, which did not exist fifteen years ago, consists of above two hundred houses, and boasts of a dock-yard, where

three brigs were on the stocks, one of which was two hundred and twenty tons burthen.

'In the Ohio, as well as in the Allegany, the Monongahela, and the other rivers of the west, there is found an abundance of a species of muscle, from two to five inches in length; it is not eaten, but the mother-of-pearl which is very thick, is employed to make sleeve-buttons. I have seen some of them at Lexington, which were as beautiful as those made of the mother-of-pearl used in Europe. This new species, which I have brought with me, has been named by citizen Rose, the *unio Ohiotensis*.

'The Ohio abounds with fish of different species. The most common is the cat-fish, *silurus felis*. These are caught with a hand-line; and in this manner they are sometimes taken of the weight of a hundred pounds.' P. 130.

The majority of the inhabitants of the banks of the Ohio are still in a rude state. The greatest part of their time is employed in hunting the stag and the bear, chiefly for the sake of the skins. They live in miserable log-houses without windows; and their food consists almost entirely of maize bread, smoked hams, milk, and butter. The peach is their only fruit-tree. The price of the best land is three dollars an acre. The wandering and completely *unsettled* disposition of those who are called the *first settlers*, exhibits a curious trait of character. They cannot remain long on the soil they have cleared; but, under pretence of finding better land, a more healthy country, or a greater abundance of beasts of chase, are constantly directing their views to points most remote from every part of the American population.

We have an interesting description of one of these men who kept company with M. Michaux two days in descending the Ohio.

'Alone, in a canoe of eighteen or twenty feet long, and twelve or fifteen inches wide, he was going to visit the banks of the Missouri, at a hundred and fifty miles from its mouth. The excellent quality of the land, which is reported to be more fertile than the banks of the Ohio, and which the Spanish government, at that time, distributed *gratis*; the multitude of beavers, elks, and, more particularly, of bisons, were the motives which induced him to emigrate into these distant countries; from whence, when he had determined on a convenient spot to settle in with his family, he had to return, and seek them on the banks of the Ohio, which obliged him to make a voyage of fourteen or fifteen hundred miles, three times. His dress, like that of all the American hunters, consisted of a round waistcoat with sleeves, a pair of pantaloons, and a broad woollen girdle, of a red and yellow colour. A carbine, a tomahawk, a small hatchet used by the Indians to cut wood, and to complete the death of their enemies, two beaver traps, and a

large knife hanging to his girdle, composed his hunting-equipage. One blanket was all his baggage. Every evening he encamped on the banks of the river, or passed the night by a fire, and when he judged the spot to be favourable to the chase, he penetrated into the woods for several days; and, from the produce of his hunting, procured the means of subsistence, and obtained fresh supplies with the skins of the animals he had killed.' P. 136.

At Limestone, M. Michaux left the Ohio, and proceeded on foot to Lexington, the most considerable town in the three new states, containing about three thousand inhabitants. Here are two printing-offices, each publishing a newspaper twice a week, two good rope-walks for furnishing the ships built on the Ohio, several tanneries, a patent nail-machine, another for cleansing hemp and sawing wood, and in the neighbourhood some potteries of common ware, and one or two powder-mills. The price of labour is high, and provisions cheap. A good workman receives a dollar and a half a day, and can live a week on a day's wages. Dr. S. Brown, a Virginian, had already introduced vaccination, and successfully employed it in more than a hundred and fifty cases.

Most of the commercial transactions are carried on in the way of barter. Coin is scarce, and when cash is remitted to Philadelphia, it is sent on horseback a distance of about six hundred and fifty miles. From this difficulty in the mode of conveyance, notes of the bank of the United States bear a premium of two per cent. About twenty miles from Lexington an attempt has been made to naturalize the vine, but without much success. The general observations on the state of Kentucky contain many interesting particulars, from which, however, we cannot make any considerable extracts. Its prosperity may be estimated in some degree by the influx of inhabitants. Before 1782 its population did not exceed 3000; in 1790 it was 100,000; and in 1800, by the general census then taken, it amounted to 220,000. The face of the country is uneven, but not mountainous: limestone is in abundance, with numerous mines of coal and some of iron. The rivers Kentucky and Green are fordable in summer, but in winter and spring will, from the sudden effect of the excessive floods, rise forty feet in twenty-four hours. Elks and bisons were formerly common here, but as the country becomes inhabited they have disappeared, and gone over to the right bank of the Mississippi. The species of animals now to be found are the deer, bear, wolf, grey and red-haired fox, wild cat, racoon, opossum, and three or four species of squirrels. There are plenty of wild turkies, some of which, when killed in autumn or winter, weigh from thirty-five to forty pounds. The planters culti-

vate tobacco, hemp, and the different species of grain, but principally maize and wheat. Maize is an article for home consumption: wheat flour is exported: rye is chiefly used in the distillation of spirits: flax is also cultivated, and manufactured into coarse linen by the women for the use of their families. The only fruit, exclusive of a few apples, is the peach. Of the latter a considerable quantity of *liqueur* is made, both for home consumption and exportation. From the abundance of maize, with the addition of oats and other forage, many of the inhabitants have profitably engaged in breeding horses. The number of horned cattle is considerable; and immense herds of swine roam at large in the forests, where chiefly they find food for themselves, and return only occasionally to the plantations, each person knowing his own by the particular manner in which he cuts their ears.

The manners of the people resemble those of the Virginians, from whom they almost entirely derive their origin. A strong religious spirit pervades the country; but unfortunately, among the most numerous sects (the methodists and anabaptists) it is, without corresponding good effects, carried to a ridiculous excess.

The state of Tennessee, which was formerly part of North Carolina, affords few peculiar observations. Nashville, the principal town in the Cumberland or western district, is as yet inconsiderable. The soil is equal in fertility to that of Kentucky; the climate is less healthy, but being in a more southern latitude, cotton is cultivated with success, and affords a much more lucrative employment to the planters than raising grain, hemp, or tobacco.

Knoxville, situated in Holston or East Tennessee, is the seat of government, and carries on a considerable commercial intercourse with Baltimore and Richmond. There is a communication by water also with the Ohio and Mississippi by the river Tennessee, a distance of about six hundred miles, the navigation of which, however, is rather dangerous. Holston is in every respect inferior in fertility to Cumberland and Kentucky.

M. Michaux crossed the Allegany mountains between Jonesborough and Morgantown, and proceeding through Lincolntown, Chester, and Columbia, returned to Charlestown in October, having made a circuit from Philadelphia of about 1800 miles in three months and a half.

A map is prefixed, exhibiting an useful but necessarily imperfect view of the rivers, principal towns, and boundaries, of the states which the author visited, and of the adjacent territory.

In general, we are satisfied with the fidelity of Mr. Lambert's translation. As an English composition, many sentences are exceptionable, owing perhaps to his having paid too literal an attention to the original. This fault, however, is excusable, compared with the inaccuracies, omissions, and gross mistakes, to be found in other translations of the same work which have been offered to the public. Still some words falsely rendered, not however very important, might be pointed out in the work before us.

Such expressions as 'it was them who began' (page 138), manifest a degree of carelessness or ignorance not to be excused; and we have several times had occasion to notice similar faults in translations presented to the public by this writer. However, upon the whole, his present performance appears to be executed with more than ordinary accuracy and attention.

ART. XII.—*Sermons altered and adapted to an English Pulpit from French Writers. By Samuel Partridge, M. A. F. S. A. Vicar of Boston and of Wigtoft with Quadring; Chaplain to the Right Honourable Lord Gwydir; and late Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. 8vo. 7s. Rivingtons. 1804.*

THERE is perhaps nothing in which the French and the English differ more from each other, than in the ideas they have adopted of the eloquence of the pulpit. It would be no very difficult task to account for this difference; but without attempting it, it may safely be affirmed that, in general, the French preachers address themselves chiefly to the heart, while the principal aim of those of our own nation is to convince the understanding. It is no matter therefore of surprise, that the former abound in warmth and animation, the latter in grave deliberation and instructive reasoning.

Of the relative value of these varying methods of arriving at the same point, we do not intend to speak; since all concur in an assurance, that excellence is to be sought and to be found only in the union of the qualities already mentioned. The warmth of the French, tempered by the gravity of the English, would constitute that perfection which is more the object of desire than of expectation. The perfect preacher is like the perfect orator of Cicero: 'qualis nemo adhuc extitit.'

This 'consummation' so 'devoutly to be wished,' seems not to have been unknown to Mr. Partridge; and though we cannot congratulate him on the success of his achievements,

though we cannot assign to him the possession and display of that *unction* whose potency sways equally and altogether the reason and the affections, we are ready and bound to praise him for good intention, and for the production of a volume of sermons of a very respectable character. There is this of good in translation, or, to speak with a more appropriate reference to the present case, in consulting the writers of other countries; that the stock of domestic information is increased, and that truth is sometimes supported by arguments if not absolutely, at least apparently, new.

The nature of this work requires specific explanation. Mr. Partridge shall speak for himself.

'This work is not properly a translation, nor yet an abridgement; but is rather an attempt to point out the just mid-way betwixt the coolness of English, and the inordinate warmth of French pulpit-oratory. The plan of each discourse, and most of the matter, are taken (with considerable alteration) from French divines. Their diffuse arguments, and periods, are reduced; their rhetoric is rejected; and their sound oratory (if the English writer has fulfilled his design) is retained. All these divines (eleven in number) are protestant, one excepted.' P. vii.

Their names are M. l'abbé de Cambacérès, Pierre du Bosc, M. le Cointe, M. Samuel de la Donespe, Pierre Boudet Gautier, Chatelain, M. Elie Bertrand, M. Guillaume Laget, Charles Bertheau, M. Formey, and Superville. These writers are, we think, in their present form, become too English; and their discourses are not sufficiently animated. The sermon against which we are least inclined to bring this charge, is 'a caution against false philosophy,' from Coloss. ii. 8. The author undertakes to shew,

'That irreligious men are justly suspected in their virtues; that their probity and honour are rather affected than real qualities.' P. 19.

'We must here' (says he) 'carry in our minds a distinction, betwixt public and secret crimes; betwixt those to which men have annexed shame and reproach, or the penalties of law; and those which are accompanied with no shame and no punishment. I allow then that, as to outward and open conduct, fear, or self-love, or any worldly considerations, may restrain a man from public and notorious crimes. But, as to secret crimes, and especially very advantageous ones; where is the restraint, on these occasions, to the man void of all religion? "In himself, they say; in his own heart." Now let us try this principle.

'Let us suppose two persons cast upon a desert island, and likely to remain there during their lives: one, religious and fearing God; the other just the contrary. I ask then, which of these two men will be the least likely to injure the other, and to be the

true man of honour? Suppose a thing very probable;—that a dispute arises betwixt them; or one is suspicious of the other; or is angry; or foolishly desires, in a splenetic moment, to be sole lord of the place; and, in order to become so, it can only cost him a single crime, that cannot fail to be attended with impunity:—which of these two men will be the first to seize his dagger, and imbrue his hands in his brother's blood?

‘But, what is to be concluded from this? Not, that a man without religion is necessarily void of honour and integrity: but, that the passions of such a man have one great restraint less on that account; that his probity and virtue have one great degree less of assurance; and, consequently, that he is a man whom we may suspect, without doing him any wrong.’

‘Give what fine definition you please of virtue; call it a sacrifice of particular to general happiness, which reason alone should prompt us to:—yet I say, give me a motive to embrace it, against my apparent interest, or the violent impulse of my passions. You cannot do this: human laws cannot do it. And therefore, when irreligious men are asked, how the people, the multitude, can be influenced by their system; they answer, that their system is for men of sentiment and education. Then, it is a false system: for truth, as well as virtue, must be adapted to all ranks of men.’ P. 19.

We are told that if this volume be acceptable to the public, another will appear, containing sermons preached on the great festivals and on other holy-days, and particular occasions. The present specimen is such, that we hope Mr. Partridge will meet with encouragement sufficient to induce him to publish the volume he proposes.

ART. XIII.—*The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, Vol. IX. 4to. 11. 7s. Boards. Payne and Mackinlay. 1803.*

THE size of this book will prevent us from examining the whole of it at present; and its contents are so multifarious, that it will not be necessary to notice the articles in order. We shall, however, begin with—Art. 1. ‘On Dr. Halley’s Series for the Calculation of Logarithms. By the Rev. Richard Murray, D.D. late Provost of Trinity College, near Dublin.’—This essay was found amongst the papers of Dr. Murray after his death. We are averse to the flippant severity of remark, yet we cannot forbear expressing our wish that its repose had never been disturbed. It is neither a precious remain of antiquity nor a commodious instrument for the computation; that modern times require.

‘Art. 4. An Examination of various Solutions of Kepler’s Problem, and a short practical Solution of that Problem pointed out. By the Rev. J. Brinkley, A. M. M. R. I. A. Andrews

Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin.—Almost every student of mathematics is acquainted with the object of the problem called, after the great mathematician who proposed and solved it, Kepler's problem. Besides the solution of its author, many other solutions have been given, each intended to be more accurate, or more general, or more easy in its practical application, than preceding solutions. Previously to the advancement of analysis which took place last century, the solutions of Kepler's problem were indirect and tentative; and without the aid of a direct solution, it is no easy thing to institute a comparison between such indirect methods with regard to their facility and their exactness. The improved methods of analysis, however, now enable us to institute a comparison: from them we can solve the problem directly, or, to speak with greater correctness, we can directly approximate to the values required to be found in the problem. The problem, in fact, can be solved after the same manner as the circumference of an ellipse can be assigned: if e be the excentricity, then the circumference of the ellipse is equal to $\frac{P}{2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} e^2 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{2} e^4 - \dots \right)$

and the more terms are computed, the more nearly is the true value of the elliptic periphery assigned. It seems unnecessary to say any thing farther on this direct method of approximation, and on the manifest distinction between it and the indirect or tentative method of approximation.

The direct solution, or the series from which the approximation can directly be commenced and conducted, is, in the present memoir, the means and scale by which Mr. Brinkley compares the accuracy and the degree of convergency of the indirect methods; thus, the expression for the true anomaly is (m being the mean anomaly, e the excentricity, radius

$$\begin{aligned} = 1) &= m - 2e \sin m + \frac{5}{4} e^2 \sin 2m \\ &+ \frac{\sin m}{4} e^3 \\ &- \frac{13}{12} \sin 3m e^3, - \&c. \end{aligned}$$

In speaking of the mode by which Laplace demonstrates this series, the author says:

‘It is hereafter pointed out, how the same series for the true anomaly, in terms of the excentric, may be obtained without the introduction of impossible quantities. The law of the series, indeed, is not demonstrated, but only collected by induction; yet it may be a question, in many instances, how far the demonstration of a law by the introduction of impossible quantities, exceeds in evidence, a conclusion obtained by induction.’ P. 91.

This opinion is not very luminously stated. A mathematical proof, if it cannot be shewn to be logically exact, is, in our opinion, worth very little: proofs by induction are worth very little; they are daily disappearing. But what is the evidence for the truth of a proof conducted by what are called impossible quantities? This evidence (we suppose the author meant) such proofs have: that, in a variety of instances, results may by aid of imaginary quantities be obtained, which results, by processes confessedly rigorous and exact, can be shewn to be right results; and consequently, when in a new case a result is obtained by the use of imaginary quantities, there is a *probability* that such result is likewise a right result. With such a statement a comparison may be instituted between the two methods; but we advise mathematical students not to amuse themselves with such comparisons. If the signs, called imaginary, and their combinations, are not parts of the common language of analysis, on an equal footing with its other expressions and phrases, the use of such signs must be rejected; for it is plainly useless labour to employ them to obtain results, and then, as it were, *experimentally* to prove such results, that is, by instituting processes more exact and rigorous.

Mr. B. applies his series, the scales of comparison, to the solutions of Kepler's problem by Kepler, by Boulliald, Seth Ward, Mercator, Newton, Cassini, La Caille, Machin, Thomas Simpson, Matthew Stewart. The examination of these methods is made with great skill and accuracy. At the end of it the author says:

‘What has been done in this essay has been principally done with a view of comparing different solutions of Kepler's problem. That comparison has led me to point out what I consider as the best practical solution of the problem, particularly applicable to the planets. This solution is formed by a combination of the solutions of Kepler, Newton, and Cassini. The very small share I claim in it is from having recommended that combination of solutions. The solutions of the two latter have been separately recommended by writers on astronomy. Cassini has not always been referred to as the author of his method, and Newton rarely. The merit of Cassini's method is derived from its simplicity, and ready application to the planetary orbits. Newton's solution was the first that was applicable to orbits of every degree of excentricity.’ P. 130.

The present paper affords ample testimony of its author's mathematical ingenuity and learning; but we wish that some friendly mathematician of Dublin college, if such there be, had suggested a small alteration in the arrangement, and much alteration in the rotation. As for the typographical part, its

miserable state cannot be imputed with blame to Mr. Brinkley; and printers cannot be summoned before our tribunal and punished: we must leave their amendment to the operation of the increasing civilization of Ireland.

Art. 3. 'An Essay on Credulity. By William Preston, Esq.'—From the introductory part of this essay, the reader is requested to believe that the sciences of pneumatology and ethics have been almost totally neglected, 'although,' as the author roundly asserts, 'the materials and leading facts which might serve to found the conclusions of moral investigation are more numerous, more faithfully detailed, and more methodically digested, than the experiments on which natural philosophers have built their theories.' We are also led to expect that some important discovery is about to be made, which has hitherto escaped the sagacity of every writer upon the general phenomena of mind, or the principles of human actions. From dulness of apprehension, however, or invincible obstinacy, we are under the necessity of confessing, that we have been unable to extract one new idea or philosophical argument from this elaborate performance. Forty quarto pages are employed in announcing in the most pompous manner, that in all ages and in all countries there have existed liars, *charlatans*, and impostors, of greater or less notoriety; and that there has always been a sufficient degree of wickedness, folly, and ignorance, to insure more or less success to the introduction and propagation of absurdity and falsehood; and that the increase of wisdom and virtue, and the general diffusion of useful knowledge, are excellent remedies to correct the evil, and admirably calculated to improve the state of civilized society.

A foolish attempt is made to bring forward credulity as an innate, separate, and independent principle, and to distinguish it from all other principles on which the mind yields its assent to any proposition. 'Credulity,' we are told (p. 56), 'is an instinctive and universal propensity of unsophisticated, unadulterated man; our assent seems to be independent and instantaneous, without reference, and without gradation.' If our author means that there is a natural propensity in human nature to believe the evidence of sense and consciousness, and to give credit to human testimony when uncontradicted, and consistent with probability, nothing is more clear and obvious; but can this propensity be called credulity? Because a man believes in his own existence and identity, that the sun sets and rises, that there is a difference between hardness and softness, sweetness and sourness, the sound of a flute and the braying of an ass, is he therefore merely the creature of credulity?

Yet the assent in such cases is instantaneous, and within the terms of our author's definition. Because he instantaneously believes that two and two make four, that a whole is greater than a part, and other self-evident propositions, is this credulity? Or does the author mean, or intend to say, that the mind is naturally disposed, with the same facility and by an equally instantaneous operation, to believe that there is no difference between blood and wine, that the devil has cloven feet and a long tail, that spirits frisk about in visible shapes, and that there are old hags who ride through the air upon broomsticks?

But we are furnished with an additional comparative illustration of this philosophical novelty: 'there is another kind of faith to truths of religion.' To prevent mistakes, therefore, our essayist agrees (p. 58) 'to call the rational, the inductive, the comparative ground of assent to a proposition, *faith*, while he exclusively terms the instinctive or implicit principle of belief *credulity*.' Nothing can be more vague and unphilosophical. Our highest degree of assent is founded upon our instinctive and intuitive perceptions. The next degree is founded upon demonstration, or the deductions of reason. Faith, on the other hand, as universally understood, is the assent to a proposition not made out by demonstration or the deductions of reason, but received on the mere credit of the proposer; and credulity, instead of being opposed to faith, may be called a blind and unreasonable excess of faith. Credulity is the offspring of ignorance, incapacity, or indolence; and finds its way into almost every man's mind as he is possessed of more or less sagacity and actual information, and according to the nature of his education, habits, predominant passions, and prejudices. To call credulity an innate and instinctive principle, is to say, that man by nature instinctively yields his assent without evidence or demonstration derived immediately from the senses or from the deductions of his reason; that he is naturally and instinctively prone to error, to the belief of improbabilities, and to the adoption of falsehood. On the contrary, instinct leads with the utmost truth and certainty to the ultimate object which nature intended to accomplish. The senses, when not diseased, lead to the certain discovery of truth and the detection of error; and in the due exercise of the natural faculties of the mind, assent is given of necessity to that which is self-evident, to that which is demonstratively proved, and, in cases of doubt, to that side which possesses the greater degree of probability. Credulity exists only when reason is neglected or suspended, or when the judgment is perverted by acquired prejudices or the influence of strong passions. The natural propensity of the

mind is, firmly to believe that which is evidently true, and to assent to that which is highly probable; to reject obvious error, and to hesitate where the facts are involved in doubt or obscurity. Superstition, enthusiasm, and every species of credulity, which frequently produce popular commotions, acts of violence, and important revolutions, are the artificial result of that mixture of wisdom and ignorance, wealth and poverty, power and weakness, which are inseparably connected with the establishment and continuance of social institutions.

We entirely agree with the author (p. 55), that in considering this subject 'he has been betrayed into much prolixity, and has been able to say very little.' His illustrations, from the imposture of Mahomet down to the story of the Cock-lane ghost, do not contain one original idea, or a single observation which affords the smallest support to his philosophical theory. The style of the essay is as objectionable as his philosophy. 'Popular credulity,' he says (p. 77), 'like an habitual germ of pestilence, lurks in the crasis and constitution of human nature.' Again (p. 80):

'When the free circulation of intelligence is checked, when the intercourse of society is rendered stealthy, fearful, and taciturn, and a factitious and unnatural criminality is attached to the intercourse of man with his neighbour; the general mind will brood, in sullen privacy; it will be filled with melancholy, engendering gloomy visions, and rancorous hopes.'

The language in general is full of affectation:

'Bullatis—nugis

Pagina turgescit, dare pondus idonea fumo.'

Art. 6. 'A Theorem for finding the Surface of an oblique Cylinder with its geometrical Demonstration. Also, an Appendix, containing some Observations on the Methods of finding the Circumference of a very excentric Ellipse, including a geometrical Demonstration of the remarkable Property of Elliptic Arcs discovered by Count Fagnani. By the Rev. J. Brinkley, A. A. M. R. I. A. Andrews Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin.'—The theorem is this: 'the surface of an oblique cylinder is equal to a rectangle contained by the diameter of its basis and the circumference of an ellipse, the axes of which are the length and perpendicular height of the cylinder.' The demonstration of this theorem, given in the present Memoir, is after the manner of the ancient geometers; but this demonstration rests upon a principle very nearly the same as that which is used in the fluxionary calculus: the proof by this

latter calculus is more concise than the one now submitted to us, and it is not necessarily less deficient in evidence, although we allow that examples are not rare of fluxionary proofs most slovenly and inconclusive.

The Appendix is very properly added; for the theorem announces only a certain connection existing between the surface of a cylinder and the periphery of an ellipse. The periphery of an ellipse is not found with ease; it is found with difficulty when the ellipse is very excentric. As a proof of this, we refer our mathematical readers to a dissertation of Euler, inserted in his *Opuscula*. In that dissertation, after a very long process, by the aid of many artifices, that great analyst at last exhibits a series for the periphery of an ellipse, ascending by the powers of the axis minor, and consequently more quickly converging the greater the excentricity of the ellipse. This series has been subsequently given by Legendre, *Paris Acts*, 1786; and by Mr. Woodhouse, *Phil. Trans.* 1804. By the aid of this, and of the common series that ascends by the powers of the excentricity, all extreme cases could easily be resolved, but the cases of mean excentricity still presented some difficulty; this last difficulty was removed by Legendre, who established this remarkable theorem: Let E , E' , E'' , be the peripheries of three ellipses, having the same axis major; and the respective excentricities e , e' , e'' :

with this law of relation, $e'' = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - e^2}}{1 + \sqrt{1 - e^2}}$; $e' = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - e'^2}}{1 + \sqrt{1 - e'^2}}$;

then $E = \alpha E' + \beta E''$, α and β being constant co-efficients.

Suppose now e of mean values, $= \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$, $e' = \frac{1}{3 + 2\sqrt{2}}$, and e'' is a still smaller fraction; the series then, that ascends by the powers of the excentricity, converges with considerable rapidity, when we substitute for the excentricity, e' , and e'' , respectively: it is moreover clear, that, from the above theorem, the following expressions may immediately be deduced, to wit, $E = \alpha' E'' + \beta' E'''$

$$E = \alpha'' E'''' + \beta'' E''''$$

$$E = \&c.$$

for, since $E = \alpha E' + \beta E''$, similarly $E' = \gamma E'' + \delta E'''$

$$\therefore E = \alpha (\gamma E'' + \delta E''') + \beta E''$$

$$= \alpha\gamma E'' + (\alpha\delta + \beta) E'''$$

$$= \alpha' E'' + \beta' E''' \text{ and so on.}$$

By these means it is clear that we may always make E to depend on two quantities, $E^{(\mu)}$, $E^{(\nu)}$, whose values, arithmetically, can very easily be found by reason of the smallness of $e^{(\mu)}$, $e^{(\nu)}$.

In the demonstration of the series for the ellipse that is arranged according to the powers of the minor axis, use is made of a theorem discovered by count Fagnani; this theorem assigns a point in the quadrant of an ellipse such that the difference between the parts of the ellipse is equal to the difference between the semi-axes. Of this theorem Mr. Brinkley gives a geometrical demonstration, which we believe to be new; those who are fond of geometrical demonstrations will do well to consult it. The theorem itself has been demonstrated before, by the aid of analytical language, by Legendre, in the *Paris Acts*; by Euler, in the *Petersburg*; and of late by Mr. Wallace in the *Edinburgh*, and Mr. Woodhouse in the *Philosophical Transactions*.

The labours of Mr. Brinkley will probably introduce the *Irish Transactions* to the notice of the mathematicians of the continent.

Art. 7. 'Essay on the natural Advantages of Ireland, the Manufactures to which they are adapted, and the best Means of improving those Manufactures. By William Preston, Esq.'—This, we are informed, was a prize essay, originally presented to the Academy in 1796, but on account of its extraordinary length objections were made to its earlier admission into the *Transactions of the Society*. This delay might have been prevented by a simple and easy expedient; a considerable part of it might have been omitted, without diminishing its intrinsic value, or depriving the reader of much pleasure or information. We do not by this observation mean to deny the merit of some parts of this Essay, which more particularly accord with the title; but the author is too fond of catching at every thing which he can find any excuse for bringing within the scope of his enquiry. He too frequently amplifies upon trifles and self-evident propositions; treats philosophical principles too flippantly, without paying sufficient attention to close argument or distinct arrangement. Instead of being an 'essay on the natural advantages of Ireland, in respect to the manufactures to which they are adapted,' it is a disjointed and incorrect sketch of almost every thing which relates to agriculture, commercial intercourse, and political œconomy in general. There is, on the other hand, a great and evident deficiency in the collection of facts relative to the natural history of Ireland, and no account whatever is given of the progress and actual state of any branch of manufacture which circumstances have introduced into the country; but the author seems to despise those minute and useful investigations which require much labour and perseverance, and probably found it a more easy task to declaim upon

general systems, theories, and hypotheses. Having been composed some time before the union, many of the remarks are no longer applicable: in short, in attempting to do too much, little or nothing has been accomplished. We are willing, however, to give the author the full benefit of his last sentence; without exactly determining whether the allusion contained in it is intended to raise a good-natured smile, or to produce sentiments of pious and charitable forbearance.

'To conclude, if, even the Deity was disposed to spare a guilty city, for the merits of a virtuous few, that might be found in it; a few honest truths, and useful observations, together with the spirit of sincerity, and good intention of the whole, may spread a veil over the many and great demerits, of this production.'

(To be continued.)

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

RELIGION.

ART. 14.—*The Divine Visitations considered, in a Sermon preached on the Fast Day, Feb. 20. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1805.*

WE cannot praise either the matter or the style of this *anonymous* discourse. The writer has no claim to expect that his name should be enquired after for the purposes of commendation.

ART. 15.—*The Influence of a Love of Religious Truth, upon the Christian Minister: a Sermon preached at the New Meeting House in Birmingham, on the Death of the Rev. Timothy Kenrick. By John Kentish. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1804.*

Mr. Kentish in this discourse has paid a respectable panegyrical tribute to the memory of his friend, an esteemed minister among those whom Mr. Kenrick affects to call the *unitarian* christians: an assumed appellation which is justly censured as 'an ungenerous inuendo' by the zealous writer who is noticed in the next article.

ART. 16.—*The Personality and Deity of the Holy Ghost: a Sermon preached at the Baptist Monthly Meeting, Jan. 24, 1805. By Joseph Jenkins, D. D. 8vo. 1s. Button. 1805.*

In this sermon the scriptural evidences of the personality and deity of the Holy Ghost are brought forward and stated with

much earnestness. The author has shewn a very commendable zeal and spirit in not suffering himself to be deterred by anonymous expostulations from fulfilling the duty assigned to him of preaching upon this subject at the Baptist Monthly Meeting; nor, after his preaching, by another interference of the same kind, to withhold him from publishing: The arguments which he has stated will not easily be overturned by his adversaries. Some of his remarks, however, and interpretations, are liable to objection; and, with regard to the style, we do not approve of such passages as the following, upon so serious a subject. 'By the Holy Spirit then I do not mean simply, that God is a spirit, though that be true; nor yet the divine nature of our Lord Jesus Christ, which is called the eternal spirit, (Heb. ix. 14) in which also he was justified when raised from the dead (1 Tim. iii. 16); nor do I mean a mere name, an energy, a character, or attribute, as my lord duke of one place is earl of another place, and viscount so and so, &c. all the while that these various titles intend one and the same person or individual; but,' &c. p. 11.

ART. 17.—*The Influence of Christianity on the military and moral Character of a Soldier: a Sermon preached before a Detachment of the Second West-York Militia, by the Rev. J. Symons, B. D. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1805.*

We have perused this discourse with very great satisfaction. It is creditable in no mean degree to the author's talents and to his feelings. It is well written, judicious, and truly pastoral. Such good offices as those here tendered by Mr. Symons, are an ornament to the clerical profession. We should have gladly indulged our readers with an extract, but hope to make amends for the omission by earnestly recommending the entire discourse as well worthy of the perusal of every soldier; as an excellent present to persons of that profession; and as a model of instruction and exhortation to those ministers whose duty it may happen to become to address a congregation of men in arms.

ART. 18.—*The Duty of Holding Fast the Doctrine of the Gospel. Preached at a Convocation of the Bishops and Clergy of the Scotch Episcopal Church, Oct. 24, 1804, by the Right Rev. John Skinner, in Aberdeen, senior Bishop of that Church. Aberdeen. 1804.*

The clergy of the episcopal church in Scotland, impressed with a sense of pain at the contemplation of the numerous sects and parties into which the christian world is so unhappily divided, have taken that method which seemed to them most advisable for bearing their testimony against the prevalent and perhaps increasing spirit of schism; and in pursuance of this design they called together a convocation, for the purpose of declaring their unanimity in doctrine and discipline with the established church of England. Bishop Skinner, the senior prelate in Scotland, was appointed to explain and recommend to his brethren the object of their meeting. After some introductory remarks, he enters upon an examination of the articles of the church of England;

and in the progress of his discourse explains in what sense, and with what provisions, they may be subscribed by the episcopallians of his own country. With regard to the second division of doctrinal articles, viz. from the ninth to the eighteenth inclusive, he is careful to protest against the obligation of maintaining the Calvinistical interpretation of them, and in this provision he seems to have been joined by the concurring sentiments of all his brethren. The exertions therefore of Mr. archdeacon Daubeney, of the dean of Peterborough, and the bishop of Lincoln, against the well-known efforts of Mr. Overton, meet with a large portion of praise. As a favourable specimen of this discourse, we recommend the following judicious, accurate, and useful account of the origin and foundation of the chief articles of our church. Were this matter better understood, we should not find so many cavils and objections continually renewed against them.

‘ This unanimity of sentiment, however, which so gracefully adorned the early ages of christianity, was soon defaced by the introduction of various discordant opinions: errors and heresies, of many different kinds, began to spring up, even at no very distant period from the apostolic æra; and these made it necessary to establish some public standard of faith, to which recourse might be had, as often as innovations were attempted, or any departure from truth was likely to take place. As a mark of distinction peculiar to those who *held fast*, or retained the faith of Jesus in its native purity, the orthodox creeds, repeated in their religious assemblies, constituted a very instructive part of public worship, and gave every devout christian an opportunity of “confessing with his mouth,” what he “believed in his heart,” respecting the God of his salvation.

‘ But as these public creeds, for the sake of being thus solemnly used in the congregations of the faithful, were necessarily drawn up in very concise and general terms, it became expedient, in process of time, to provide a more particular guard against those erroneous tenets, which were continually assailing the faith that had once been delivered to the saints, and ought ever to be regarded as the most sacred and solemn trust. In “contending,” as St. Jude had directed, for this ancient faith of the gospel, those who were more immediately called upon to appear in its defence, were obliged to keep a constant watch against the enemy of God’s truth, and to secure it more especially in those points, where it was most artfully and strongly attacked. This precaution was more imperiously demanded in these latter ages, by the continued usurpation and tyranny of the church of Rome: and the few national churches, which had the happiness to effect a sound and salutary reformation, were laid under the necessity of securing themselves against any future invasion of their rights, by a direct renunciation of the errors of popery, and such a full and complete declaration of their faith as might shew their abhorrence of the Romish corruptions in all time coming. This was peculiarly attended to by the wisdom and piety of those reformers, who appeared, with such distinguished lustre, in the southern part of this island, and

set an example worthy of being imitated by all who were groaning under the yoke of popish superstition.

‘But as every thing that is good and precious, is apt to be debased by a mixture of that which is evil and vile, the sad effect of human depravity, it was soon found, that the reformation itself gave rise to many wild and extravagant opinions, from the infection of which it was equally necessary to guard the reformed churches. Those of the protestant persuasion were unhappily split into a variety of sects and parties, according to the titles and tenets which their several leaders thought proper to impose; and so many deviations from the truth required that steady, correcting hand, which was no where held out with more skill and judgment, than in the church of England. Finding so much cause to break off from the Romish communion, and at the same time being equally desirous to avoid those errors and irregularities into which that separation might lead, she composed what are called her *articles of religion*, agreed upon, we are told, by her bishops and clergy, for the express purpose of “avoiding of diversities of opinions, and for the establishing of consent, touching true religion.” p. 9

The appendix contains some additional particulars which increase the value and importance of this pamphlet.

ART. 19.—*A Guide to Heaven: seriously addressed to all who believe the Gospel to be the word of God: by the Rev. Charles Sleech Hawtrey, A. B. Vicar of Widston, Monmouthshire. 8vo. 4s. Rivingtons. 1805.*

We have Bath Guides, and Guides to Tunbridge, and to all the fashionable watering places; we have town and city guides, and Westminster guides, and Oxford guides, and Cambridge guides; but we never expected nor wished for any other guide to heaven than the plain and simple road pointed out to us in the holy scriptures; the vicar of Widston nevertheless, has thought it necessary to supply his parishioners and the public with a guide, to facilitate their ascent up ‘the steep and thorny paths to Heaven:’ this is very kind on his part; still we think the Welshmen will not be much pleased with their conductor, when they find that they must pay the sum of four shillings for his assistance.

Mr. Sleech Hawtrey has ransacked his bible for a set of texts, which he has divided into sixteen chapters, to each of which he has subjoined what he has been pleased to call the application; this, on the average, consists of twelve or fourteen lines of puerile declamation: ‘If’—‘since then’—‘how much it becomes us’—‘let us then,’ &c. &c. &c. the usual finale of a school-boy’s theme, constitute no inconsiderable portion of these applications. For our own parts, we think every one who is in possession of a bible, and a very small share of common sense, capable of making equally good reflections for himself; and to such we shall recommend the guide to which he has been accustomed from his infancy, in preference to the one provided for him by Mr. Hawtrey.

POLITICS.

ART. 20.—*An Attempt to explain the late mysterious Conduct of the Right Hon. William Pitt, with some Observations on some late political Events.* 8vo. 1s. Clarke. 1805.

Whoever attempts to explain mysteries, undertakes a hopeless task. It so happens, however, that the secrets which the writer of these sheets pretends to disclose, 'having had access,' as he tells us, 'where it was not permitted to every individual to penetrate,' have been without exception the theme of public discussion in every coffee-house in the kingdom. We should advise him to make the easy transition from the study of mysteries to *quietism*; and, without running the hazard of disturbing his own tranquillity or of abusing the patience of others, to indulge in the calm pleasures of silent contemplation.

ART. 21.—*An Essay on Toleration; in which the Subject of Catholic Emancipation is considered. By a Presbyterian of a Church in England.* 8vo. 1s. Williams. 1805.

ART. 22.—*A Letter to the Honourable C. J. F. on the Catholic Petition.* 3d. Ashworth, Oldham. 1805.

We shall probably in a future number take an opportunity of entering into a dispassionate examination of this important question: in the mean time we cannot avoid consigning to contempt the intrusive observations of scribbling pamphleteers. The Presbyterian declares himself to be entirely hostile to every established form of religion, demands an equality of rights and privileges to sectarians of all descriptions, and wishes upon fair terms, and with all the ardour of brotherly love, to commence a speculative crusade against all hierarchies and damnable errors, in favour of what he probably calls the holy, catholic, protestant, presbyterian, reformed, and refined religion.

The Letter to Mr. F. is an insignificant compound of ignorance and intolerance.

ART. 23.—*The Horrors of the Negro Slavery existing in our West Indian Islands, irrefragably demonstrated from official Documents, recently presented to the House of Commons.* Hatchard. 1805.

Whatever opinion we entertain upon the abstract question of the abolition of the slave-trade, we must ever condemn the introduction of insulated facts and partial details, which tend only to inflame the passions and counteract the operation of unbiassed reason and sound policy.

The only fair conclusion to be drawn from this pamphlet is, that government is disposed to investigate with impartiality, and listen with attention to, every circumstance which may enable them to diminish existing evils, and ameliorate the condition of those who, from unfortunate necessity, are placed in a state of

slavery. The immediate abolition of a system though repugnant to liberal and philosophical principles, or the adoption of another which involves and may militate against the interests of thousands whose property is at stake, and who have employed it under the sanction of existing regulations, are important questions, not to be carried by acclamation or appeals to the feelings. Let not the press therefore team with publications calculated only to affect the heart and mislead the judgment.

ART. 24.—*A Brief Inquiry concerning the Origin, Progress, and Impolicy of Taxing Attornies, including Remarks on a Regulation ascribed to a Suggestion from the late Lloyd Lord Kenyon: by Charles Isley, of New Inn.* Brooke and Clarke. 1804.

It is in fact beneath the dignity of criticism to notice such trash as this; but we do it in the hopes of rescuing the press, if possible, from being the prostituted instrument of ushering into the world any and every man's folly and nonsense. Were we to believe this man's assertions, the tax upon attornies is of as much consequence to the constitution and the general interests of the empire as the Great Charter, the Habeas Corpus act, or the Bill of Rights.

ART. 25.—*Strictures on the Tenth Report of the Commissioners of Naval Enquiry. By Allan Macleod, Esq. To which are subjoined an Appendix, containing the Substance of that Report, and Lord Melville's Letter of the 28th of March, 1803, to the Commissioners, together with their Answer.*

Allan Macleod sayeth, that 'the commission of naval enquiry has been most indiscreetly administered;' that the tenth report is 'famous for that unreserved scurrility which marks all the productions of the friends and abettors of the St. Vincent's faction;' that it may be compared to 'the acts of Nero and Caligula;' that it is 'from beginning to end almost a tissue of calumnies, a report to satiate the lust for scandal of a faction of hot-headed unlearned tyrants;' that the commissioners 'ought to be ashamed of themselves;' and that their conduct is of such a nature, that 'in private life such violence and rudeness would have been chastised with a wholesome bit of hazle-tree laid on gently up and down under the windows of the insulted parties. But what is done by commissioners no man will think to requite by caning.' Allan Macleod farther saith, that 'the commissioners, for their abominable quibbling and special pleading, deserve to have a vote of censure passed on them;' and having uttered this and a vast deal more stuff of the same kind, Allan Macleod maketh the following adjuration: 'on my soul I do most conscientiously believe I have done the commission no sort of injustice.' We will not sully our pages with the abuse scattered abroad by Mr. Allan Macleod on lord St. Vincent's and others in high stations. We are only astonished that a man could be found to put his name to so

contemptible a publication, which is entirely devoid of argument and if it could produce any effect at all, that effect would be quite the contrary to what he intends.

ART. 26.—*Letter addressed to the Right Honourable William Pitt, concerning the Establishment of an adequate Provision and Pension for Sailors and Soldiers, after certain Length of Services. By the Honourable and Reverend James Athol Cochrane, formerly Chaplain to the 82nd Regiment of Foot. 8vo. 6d. Mawman. 1805.*

Mr. Cochrane has long been a chaplain in the army, and doubtless 'the name of soldier sounds in his ears like the name of friend.' He has accordingly, from motives which do honour both to his patriotism and his humanity, published a small pamphlet, to prove not only that soldiers and sailors are entitled by wounds and length of service to an adequate provision, but that the prospect of such provision would stimulate young men to enter into the sea and land service, and thereby prove the most effectual method of recruiting both the army and navy.

The sight of so many worn-out and maimed veterans chanting their miserable fate in every street and corner of the British dominions, is highly disgraceful to the country; and, as Mr. Cochrane observes, the pension from Greenwich and Chelsea is entirely inadequate to their maintenance.

The continental soldiers have reason to envy their English brethren their pay and good quarters. The pay of the former, throughout the whole continent, is scarcely sufficient for their subsistence: but on the other hand they are only enlisted, generally speaking, for a certain period; and if disabled, care is usually taken to provide them with such situations as they are capable of filling; for instance, they are employed in delivering letters from the post-offices, &c.

Mr. Cochrane points out several plans for the establishment of a fund to be applied to the purpose in question, some of which are sufficiently feasible. The principal are, that an appropriate sermon be preached annually in every church and chapel in the United Kingdoms, and a collection made for the purpose from house to house; that a per-centage should be levied on all fortunes above a certain value; that a small tax be paid each year by every person fit to carry arms; and finally, that the money arising from the sale of commissions be applied to assist this fund.

POETRY.

ART. 27.—*The Pleasures of Composition; a Poem, in two Parts. Part I. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1804.*

We cannot encourage this author to publish his second part. He advertises his intention of 'not rivalling the Pleasures of Imagination, Memory, Hope, &c.' and we commend his mo-

desty. But where there is no emulation, nothing great will be performed; and as to the puny efforts of conscious imbecility, they had better be confined to an audience of forgiving friends. The public is a more just, and therefore a severer judge. Will it not coincide with our opinion of the merits of this author? who must feel in a high degree 'the pleasures of composition,' when he can even himself be pleased with such stuff as the following: it is taken from the part of this poem that relates to music.

' Next to Ausonia flew the 'witching maid,
And, long neglected, mourn'd Lyceum's shade;
Where genius bade the fair musician rule,
And cold philosophy adopt her school.
Yet, in th' eventful episodes of Rome,
Her dormant talents would betray their home:
Fix honor's dictates, when inclined to swerve,
And draw its poison from the lustful nerve.
Wine, rage, desire, impel the mad'ning youth,
To burst the bonds of modesty and truth;
With satyr-fangs his mistress to assail—
Deaf to her pray'r, her strength, her senses fail;
No parent nigh, her chastity to guard;
No hope—when lo! a blind, domestic bard,
Drawn by her cries, calls rhet'ric from the wires,
To virtue's rescue, while the Muse inspires.
Delightful minstrel! what reward was thine!
Who Composition rais'd to heights divine:
Who heard, chastis'd, the youth for pardon sue,
And grant to music, what was beauty's due!' P. 18.

We are here (not without reason) referred to the notes, where we find this explanation of the above:

' The author trusts he has not offended against propriety, in removing the scene of this anecdote (quoted by a Greek writer) from Greece to Rome. As music was held in less estimation in Italy in those times, the remarkable power attributed to it in this instance, may be easier accounted for, than in a country where the talent was cultivated, and its charms familiar to youth. ' Vide Quint. L. 5.' P. 46.

We did look in Quintilian, book the 5th, for this anecdote, but in vain. We traced its origin in L. 1, c. 8, ad finem, edit. Rollin: 'Nam et *Pythagoram accepimus*' (this the author calls a quotation from a Greek writer) 'concitatos ad vim pudicæ domui afferendam juvenes, jussu mutare in spondeum modos tibicinâ, composuisse.'—What is meant by 'changing the scene of this anecdote from Greece to Rome'? If such a thing ever happened, it probably did in the voluptuous town of Crotona, where Pythagoras kept a school. Must we refer this author to his Cellarius for the situation of Magna Græcia? We will save him the trou-

ble of hunting in the index, and negatively inform him that Magna Græcia is no part of Peloponnesus, nor is it any one of the countries on the other side of the isthmus of Corinth; he need not therefore be in fear of 'having offended against propriety by changing the scene of this anecdote from Greece to Rome.'

We have in this passage united a specimen of prose and poetry, rarely equalled. But we are threatened with a 'voluminous head of poetry' in the second part; for 'here the author feels more confident in his own judgment' (see his advertisement); in his notes too he probably will expatiate as largely as in the present pamphlet, where there are forty pages of 'illustration and confirmation' out of sixty. The author of 'The Pleasures of Composition' will surely pardon us a parody of his concluding lines. We have retained all the faults and nonsense, to make *our copy more like the original*.

'Oh! would thy harp in plaintive notes severe,
Lull the grammarian's strictly judging ear,
Calm men, by criticism savage grown,
Or soften hearts more obdurate than stone,
Then Grub-street's sons might still be blest and free,
And fabled Dunciads realiz'd by thee!'

See Pleasures of Composition, P. 21.

ART. 28.—*The Picture; Verses written in London, May 28, 1803, suggested by a magnificent Landscape of Rubens, in possession of Sir George Beaumont. By the Rev. Wm. Lisle Bowles. 4to. 2s. Cadell. 1804.*

We are sorry that 'a magnificent landscape of Rubens' should have suggested to Mr. Bowles,—who certainly has descriptive powers, as his 'Combe Ellen' and 'St. Michael's Mount' testify,—such poor drivel as the whole of the present composition, particularly pages 10 and 11. The obvious plagiarisms which we there find from 'Auld Robin Grey' and 'Over the Mountains,' are indeed disgraceful. Such petty poetical larceny is beneath the author of the following sonnet.

'Written in a Convent.

'If chance some pensive stranger hither led,
His bosom glowing from majestic views
The gorgeous dome, and the proud landscape's hues,
Should ask who sleeps beneath this lowly bed,
'Tis poor Matilda—to the cloister'd scene
A mournerauteous and unknown she came,
To shed her tears unmark'd, and quench the flame
Of fruitless love—yet was her look serene,
As the pale moon-light in the midnight aisle!
Her voice was soft, and such a charm could lend
As that which spoke of a departed friend,

And a meek sadness sat upon her smile;
Now, far remov'd from ev'ry earthly ill,
Her woes are buried, and her heart is still.'

There certainly are many errors in the style of the above, but it is far superior to the generality of sonnets; it is full of tenderness, and has some very poetical colouring. Let Mr. Bowles write us an elegy or two: he would not lament in Latin imagery, like Hammond; for we think him well qualified to express

' Quo desiderio veteres revocamus amores,
Atque olim amissas flemus amicitias!'

It is the motto to his Sonnets. Not that we recommend these fetters of fourteen lines to him, any more than 'Odes upon the Battle of the Nile.' He may recite elegies with impunity.

ART. 29.—*An Essay on Man, upon Principles opposite to those of Lord Bolingbroke, in Four Epistles, with a Preface and Notes. By W. Churchey. 12mo. 4s. Kirby. 1804.*

Mr. Churchey, as he confesses, is only to be opposed to lord Bolingbroke, as a philosopher, and not to Mr. Pope, as a poet. It will suffice to say, upon this part of the book, that the principles are those of an earnest advocate in the cause of christianity, but perhaps rather too warm an admirer of Mr. John Wesley; whom the author calls 'as to his style, the Mansfield of the christian world in his day:' Notes, p. 72. The six lines descriptive of the deluge, p. 25, would, we think, constitute one of the most poetical passages in the essay, were it not for the bathos in the last: 'Towns, cities, cedars, in one ruin fall.' The millennium is tolerably well pictured too (epistle 4th, page 63), but we have not room to transcribe it.

Upon the whole, however, we were much more edified than amused by this production; which, although we might perhaps have been contented with it as a religious essay, from its being merely edifying, yet we might have expected to have been more amusing as a poem. Poetical essays indeed are constitutionally dull, unless embellished by something like the wit of Pope, of whom we may much more truly say than Johnson did of Goldsmith, 'Nihil quod tetigit, non ornavit.'

ART. 30.—*Poems, Tales, Odes, Sonnets, Translations from the British. By Richard Llwyd, author of Beaumaris Bay, Gayton Wake, &c. 2 vols. 12mo. 6s. Williams. 1804.*

In a former number we had occasion to notice Mr. Richard Llwyd, as the author of a poem entitled 'Mary Dod, and her List of Merits,' in terms of no very high commendation. We are sorry that we cannot now retract our sentiments of this Cambrian bard; and if our readers are disposed to think us unjustly severe, we condemn them to read the following:

' Yes, gen'rous Saxon*, in a kinder age,
My country looks, with pleasure, on thy page;
Where manly thoughts, in candour's language drest,
Denotes the worth, that dwells within thy breast!

' Expatriated fair, in earliest youth,
Thy Cambria forc'd to western rocks to flee
Has seldom seen, th' impartial pen of truth,
Her years, her tears, retrace, on thy side Dee.

' Yet saw the drop, that issu'd from thy soul,
Bedew the tome of time, of crime the roll;
Hears thee, with healing voice, her wrongs regret,
And bid her happier hours, the past—forget.

' Let, Warrington, her native mountain bard,
Lead, to thy liberal eye—this dear reward!' P. 135.

ART. 31.—*The Sorrows of Seduction, with other Poems.* Small 8vo.
5s. Longman. 1805.

Its title its passport, this poem will probably form part of the furniture of many a lady's dressing-room. With that let the author be content. We cannot encourage him in his design of completing the poem of which 'the Sorrows of Seduction' only form a part. There are the strongest reasons why he should never have appeared in print at all. These reasons, which are to be found in his preface, are, that he has had no advantages of education, that he is engaged in an employment which gives him but little leisure for literary pursuits, and above all, that he has no literary friend to whom he can submit the examination of his performances. He has not by nature sufficient poetical powers to counterbalance these deficiencies; and though we allow that much worse poems constantly issue from the press, yet, to a sensible man, that is but poor encouragement.

The story of this poem may easily be guessed, and shortly told. A country-girl is seduced and deserted by a young man, who repents on his death-bed. But the verses are not quite good enough to make the reader take an interest in the story. At the end of the volume are some smaller pieces, whose merit is not greater than that of 'the Sorrows of Seduction.'

DRAMA.

ART. 32.—*The English Fleet in 1342, an Historical Comic Opera, in Three Acts; as performed at the Theatre-Royal Covent Garden; written by Thomas Dibdin, Esq.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman. 1805.

For the historical foundation of this opera we are directed to consult the second volume of Hume's England; this was judi-

* * A native of England is still known in Wales as a Saxon, or Sais.

ciously done, for no particle of history does the opera contain : we sincerely wish we had been directed where to look for the comic part.

ART. 33.—*Of Age To-morrow. A musical Entertainment in Two Acts, as performed by their Majesties' Servants, at the Theatre-Royal, Drury Lane, and printed exactly conformable to the Performance.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Barker and Son. 1805.

Wretched ! despicably wretched !

' Another and another still succeeds,
And the last fool is welcome as the former : '

For instance,—

ART. 34.—*Confined in Vain ; or a Double to Do : a Farce in Two Acts, by T. Jones, Author of Poems and Phantoms, or the Irishman in England.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jones and Peck. 1805.

ART. 35.—*Custom's Fallacy : a Dramatic Sketch in Three Acts, never performed.* 8vo. 2s. Barker and Son.

ART. 36.—*The Piccolominis : a Drama in Five Acts, from the German of Schiller.* 8vo. 2s. Chapple. 1805.

Of the first we shall only observe that the author deserves some credit for printing it upon bad paper ; on the second we can make no appropriate remark ; and the third, as it is said to be a chef-d'œuvre of the incomparable Schiller, shall speak for itself : the quotation we select is from a prelude to the drama, called the Camp of Wallenstein ; a Capuchin friar *loquitur*.

' Hey there ! yo high ! dudeldumdy,
Here's fun going forward, and I must be by ;
Is this an army of Turks, and not christians,
Or are we then heathens and antibaptistians ?
Dare we thus murder the good Sabbath day,
As if God had the gout, or the chiragra ? &c. &c.
And since after sin must it's consequence follow,
Like tears from the eyes, when strong mustard you swallow ;
Or when with strong onions you rub well your nose,
So from sin must arise war's murderous blows ;
After the O quickly follows the P,
For that is the order of A, B, and C.'

The remainder of this speech is blasphemy.

The poetry of the whole drama is equally elegant with the above quotation ; the plot is not of a better stamp. The principal characters, heroes and princesses, are occasionally introduced as playing at bo-peep !! Whether this nonsense is to be attributed to 'the incomparable Schiller' or his translator, we have not taken the trouble to enquire ; but these gentlemen, between them, have dished up such a farrago of absurdities as we have seldom witnessed.

ART. 37.—*The Lady of the Rock ; a Melo-Drame in two Acts ; as it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By Thomas Holcroft. Second Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman. 1805.*

Mr. Holcroft tells us in his preface that he is indebted for the foundation of this melo-drame to an anecdote related in the Annual Review, of which the editor observes—'this tale might be dramatised with very powerful effect, by a skilful writer.' At first Mr. Holcroft thought otherwise; but he afterwards changed his opinion.—What is this but to acknowledge that he thought *himself* a skilful writer? Whoever will be at the expence and trouble of reading this performance, will however be of a different opinion, unless he is one of those who thinks scenery, machinery, and decorations, &c. a sufficient substitute for sense; he will in that case be gratified with the powerful effect of total darkness, sheets of rain, and dreadful peals of thunder; it is much to be lamented that Mr. Holcroft did not avail himself of a water-spout, and a fall of snow four feet deep, as was of late ingeniously recommended to a modern dramatist.

ART. 38.—*Elbow Room. A Pamphlet : containing Remarks on the shameful Increase of the private Boxes of Covent Garden. Also, a comparative View of the two Houses, shewing the puerility of a great Man's prophecy, who was to have turned Drury-lane Theatre into a splendid Desert, &c. &c. &c. By Thomas Gilliland, Author of the Dramatic Synopsis. 8vo. 1s. Chapple. 1804.*

Mr. Gilliland is very indignant that he cannot obtain a convenient seat at Covent-garden theatre; he is very scurrilous, and very ridiculous; very anxious to promote a riot, in the play-house, yet very desirous that no such construction should be put on his stupid pamphlet. 'Mr. Harris has characterized a reign of thirty years with a love of low buffoonery.' Mr. Kemble is now 'the barbarous Alaric,' and now a 'glow-worm, which loses its lustre in the effulgence of the sun of Mr. Sheridan.' Covent-garden is a 'gingerbread house; but to sit within the walls of Drury-lane is absolutely a treat.' We shall not argue the matter with Mr. Thomas Gilliland; but for the sake of respectable females who visit the theatre, we think every one would consider himself much indebted to Mr. Kemble if he would employ the *whole of the boxes* after the plan adopted at the opera.

ART. 39.—*Odd Whims, and Miscellanies. By Humphrey Repton, Esq. 2 vols. 8vo. 18s. Miller. 1804.*

— 'The painter and the poet
Are of imagination both compact,'

according to a parody upon Shakspeare; but, although we have often admired Mr. Repton's designs as a landscape-gardener, we cannot approve of his poetic miscellanies. Neither do we think his comedy of 'Odd Whims, or Two at a Time,' displays much humour, or probability of incident. It was written twenty years ago, and presented for performance at one of the theatres; but when it had been read with approbation, the author

was told, after some suspense, that the manuscript and drawings (for it is a comedy with plates) were *mislaid*. This, we confess, appears to us like a civil evasion; and we cannot help concurring with the manager in his more deliberate opinion of the play, notwithstanding the applause Mr. Repton himself assures us its loyal sentiments met with lately at the Ipswich theatre, and the favourable notice formerly taken of it by Mr. Burke and sir Joshua Reynolds. Neither of these great men were by nature qualified to have a strong relish for comic humour: the latter possessed a very pure and classical taste; and the former, of all the ancients, most admired the grave and majestic Virgil. Had Fielding and Hogarth spoken well of a comedy, we should not have dared to differ from them.

Some of the prose essays in these volumes had been already offered to the public, in a collection called 'Variety;' and we were not displeased to see that what we had before found amusement in, proceeded in part from the pen of Mr. Repton. As an essayist he appears in his best light; his thoughts are natural, yet not indiscriminating; and his language, though occasionally luxuriant, generally correct. His forte seems to be in the delineation of eccentric characters, which would appear to entitle him to praise as a comic writer; but, like all the dramatic authors of the present day, he conceives much better than he executes; and when the expectation has been raised by the name and dress of a humourist, we find his jokes sententious, and his actions methodical. The liveliness of dialogue seems to be extinct upon the stage. It is gone with Congreve, with Vanbrugh, and with Farquhar; with

'Eupolis, atque Cratinus, Aristophanesque poetæ,
Atque alii, quorum comædia prisca virorum est.'

MEDICINE.

ART. 40.—*Report on the Progress of Vaccine Inoculation in Bengal, from the Period of its Introduction in November 1802, to the end of the Year 1803: with an Appendix submitted to the Medical Board at Fort-William. By John Shoolbred, Superintendent General of Vaccine Inoculation. 8vo. 2s. Blacks and Parry. 1805.*

This pamphlet was printed at Calcutta in 1804, at the expence of the East India company, and has now been reprinted in London. It contains an interesting account of the extent to which the vaccine preservative has been disseminated in India, of the attention which has been judiciously paid to its dissemination by the present governor-general, and of the means which have been adopted to overcome the numerous difficulties which necessarily occurred. The vaccine *virus* being incapable of retaining its infectious power long enough to be transmitted by sea to India, it became necessary to divide its journey into stages, at each of which by new inoculations its power might be renewed. The disease had already reached Constantinople; and in consequence of a letter from the governor of Bombay to lord Elgin, the British ambassador, some *virus* was sent to Bagdad; but, this failing to produce the disease by

inoculation, a second supply was transmitted, which succeeded. Fresh matter was forwarded thence to Bussora, where it produced the disease; and thence to Bombay, where, after numerous failures, the inoculation was at length successfully performed. From Bombay the matter was communicated to Madras, and several other places; and from Madras, after many attempts had failed, it was at length conveyed to Bengal, 'by means of successive inoculations performed on board ship,' in Nov. 1802. An establishment was then formed in Bengal, communicating with different stations in the country, in order to extend the benefits, and preserve the existence, of the vaccine disease; and from the time of its introduction, to the end of the year 1803, the following number of patients has been vaccinated:

At the vaccine stations	-	-	4456
In other parts of the country	-	-	4210
At the Prince of Wales's Island	-	-	1000
Vaccinated, but of whom no return has been made, say			1500

Total vaccinated up to the 31st Dec. 1803 11,166

We apprehend it is totally unnecessary to add, that in a large number of these cases, in which the test of inoculation with *various* matter was resorted to, the security of the patients was invariably ascertained; and no instance of small-pox after vaccination had occurred. We have had great pleasure in contemplating the zeal, activity, and judgment, manifested in the cause, both by government and the medical faculty, which have been such as to ensure the success of the vaccine practice in that distant quarter of the globe, and entitle them to the gratitude of their fellow-citizens.

ART. 41.—*Observations on the Disease called the Plague, &c. &c. &c. By P. Assalini, one of the chief Surgeons of the Consular Guards. Translated from the French by Adam Neale, late Surgeon of the Shropshire Regiment of Militia. 8vo. Mawman. 1804.*

Dr. Assalini's 'Observations' are somewhat desultory, and his descriptions of the diseases in question are too vague and uncircumstantial to add much to our knowledge of their nature. What shall we say, for instance, of the history of an epidemic fever, fatal to at least one third of those whom it attacks, in which the state of the pulse, the skin, and the morbid temperature, is barely hinted at? And we look in vain for any thing like information as to a rational or successful method of cure. Some scattered facts, however, may be collected in the course of the volume, which deserve attention; especially in relation to the question, whether the fever, commonly the plague, was in this instance contagious? We must confess ourselves unable to discover the nature or extent of citizen Assalini's creed upon this difficult topic. He advances arguments to prove that the disease was not contagious; but he afterwards qualifies them, and his precautions in the presence of the sick betray a scepticism as to their truth, not to say a belief of the contrary position. It is true, he says, that many were attacked who had

communication with the sick, but many more, 'in spite of the most decided communication,' continued to enjoy good health (p. 17). Several individuals were seen to contract the disease, and die, although they had been living shut up after the manner of the Franks. Citizen Larray dissected many bodies, and examined the buboes of the deceased, with perfect impunity. And citizen Desgenette inoculated himself by two punctures with a lancet dipped in the pus of a bubo; yet his health did not suffer (p. 22). After the obvious inference which citizen Assalini deduces from these and similar facts, we were not a little surprised to meet with the following observations:

'One may contract, in my opinion, this disease, when the causes which produce it shall by degrees have impaired the health, and predisposed the body to take on diseased action: I will then admit, that if a person be exposed to breathe the infected air in the chamber of a patient, or should he stay too long in the same atmosphere, he will run a great risk of contracting the prevailing malady. I have been careful never to stay longer by the sick than the time requisite to perform the necessary operations; after which I always went out to respire a better air. In this way I have been preserved from a disease, which in forty days carried off one-third of the garrison of Jaffa, including the commandant of the province, the governor of the place, and nine medical officers.' p. 25. To us, however, viewing the question at a distance from such dreadful mortality, the doctor's arguments more than counterbalance the conclusion drawn from his personal fears. The disease began immediately on their arrival from the pure and healthy air of Cairo, at the marshes and bogs of Jaffa, and it first attacked that division of the army which was encamped on the borders of an extensive marsh. Some important facts are mentioned with respect to the efficacy of exercise and change of place in preventing the disease. The wandering Bedouin Arabs are never attacked, notwithstanding their communication with 'infected' cities, during the most dreadful plagues.

The yellow fever of Cadiz, and the dysentery, are very cursorily treated. The ophthalmia, as the translator calls it, is discussed more at length; and some of the observations respecting the causes of it may be read with advantage. The volume concludes with a description of a hospital for patients in the plague, accompanied with three explanatory plates.

MISCELLANIES.

ART. 42.—*The Lives of the Scottish Poets, with preliminary Dissertations on the Literary History of Scotland, and the early Scottish Drama. By David Irving, A. M. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Verner and Hood. 1804.*

This compilation of facts and fables discovers more labour than originality. The Dissertation on the Literary History of Scotland, with the exception of some observations on the opinions which have been entertained respecting the languages formerly prevalent in that country, is nothing but a chronological account of

names and dates, interspersed with very few useful or interesting remarks.

The early Scottish drama is altogether a barren subject. A veneration for antiquity, and national partiality, naturally induce the industrious scholar to rescue from oblivion and ascribe some portion of merit to every old work or fragment which his researches may discover. Amidst the rubbish, no doubt, a gem is sometimes found, which, polished and enriched by an able artist, sparkles in the literary cabinet with renovated lustre. Such is Sir Tristram, a metrical romance of the 13th century, by Thomas of Erildoune, of which Mr. Scott has lately presented to the public a splendid and valuable edition. These early productions in general derive their importance from opening a field for ingenious criticism to glean whatever may display the customs and manners of the times. Considered as works of genius, the peculiarities of the early Scottish dialect probably lead a stranger to attach less, and a native more, merit to the poetical labours of former times than they intrinsically deserve. Notwithstanding, however, the national celebrity of Barbour, Dunbar, Dodglas, Lindsay, and the royal poets of the house of Stuart, we may safely affirm that no foreigner and few Englishmen can receive any satisfaction from a perusal of their works, adequate to the previous labour necessary to render them intelligible. The northern constellation of talents which during the 18th century illuminated the departments of history and philosophy, may diminish every Scotchman's anxiety for the poetic fame of his ancestors. Those, however, who are fond of dwelling with pleasure on every minute and trifling circumstance will, in addition to the few names of real eminence, find in Mr. Irving's biographical sketches a copious catalogue of writers, who lived in such and such a reign, made verses, and died.

ART. 43.—*A new Treatise on the Use of the Globes, or a Philosophical View of the Earth and Heavens, &c. By Thomas Keith. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman. 1805.*

In elementary works of this kind the arrangement is a principal object, not for the sake of erecting a beautiful system, but simply for the learner's ease. Considering the subject in this light, we could have wished all that well-selected matter which is inserted between part i. chap. 1. and part ii. chap. 1. of the present treatise, to have been reserved to the end of the volume. Otherwise the 'lucidus ordo' is well preserved. The definitions are perspicuously arranged and well worded, except that of centrifugal force, p. 39, which is by mistake confounded with a very different thing, projectile force.

The questions for examination, with references to the pages where the answers may be found, is a very useful part of the present publication; indeed, we think that no elementary treatise designed, as this is, for the instruction of youth, should be without a collection of such questions.

The author merits commendation for the form of his book, as the same matter might easily, by an increase of type and margin, have been expanded into an octavo volume. Upon the whole, we recom-

mend Mr. Keith's treatise as an useful compendium for learners of the age of fourteen and upwards. For younger scholars, unless of extraordinary powers, something simpler is requisite.

ART. 44.—*Sequel to the English Reader, or elegant Selections in Prose and Poetry, designed to improve the highest Class of Learners in Reading, to establish a Taste for just and accurate Composition, and to promote the Interests of Piety and Virtue. By Lindley Murray. 2d Edition, with Alterations and Additions. 8vo. 4s. Longman and Rees. 1805.*

The second edition of this excellent school book contains the addition of nine extracts selected from Addison, Carter, Cowper, Hawkesworth, and Dr. Johnson; with an abridgment of lord Lyttelton's Conversion of St. Paul, from the *Encyclopædia Britannica*; an Appendix also of 62 pages is subjoined, containing biographical sketches of the authors from whom this selection is made. These are executed with brevity and neatness, yet we think it would have been a preferable plan to have **PREFIRED** these memoirs to the work, for the same reason that in teaching the Latin and Greek classics every skilful master makes his pupil read the life of the author he puts into his hand, before he enters upon the study of his works. We have, however, no hesitation in recommending this as the best selection of its kind; and perhaps in a future edition Mr. Murray may be induced to take advantage of our hint.

ART. 45.—*Considerations on the best Mode of improving the present imperfect State of the Navigation of the River Thames from Richmond to Staines, shewing the Advantages to the Public, the Navigator, and the Owners and Occupiers of Houses, Mills, and Lands, in the Vicinity, by improving the Navigation of the River in Preference to making a Canal. By Zach. Alnut Henley. 8vo. 2s. 1805.*

The state of the river Thames above Richmond, and indeed of most rivers in England, is a disgrace to the country. They are left almost entirely to themselves. There is no regular system by which the acts of nature in wearing the banks and in making shoals are constantly attended to, so that those injuries might easily be repaired, which being neglected become formidable nuisances, and either check navigation or subject the country to inundation. The river Thames ought to be, and might be easily made, navigable almost to its source; and in China there would be vessels upon it till there was no mean of keeping six inches depth of water in the channel, or it was not wide enough to admit a narrow barge. The writer of this little work, a very ingenious man, who has invented a method of printing maps of estates and surveys of land with moveable types, is surveyor of the second and third districts, and has paid great attention to the navigation on the Thames. From his observations he conceives that very great improvements may be made in it, and in this we are very much inclined to agree with him, at very little expence; and he has dilated with great judgment on the following heads of his work: 1st. The navigation of the river Thames is very important by its extensive

course and connection, and lately is become more so by its reception of the additional trade of several other navigable rivers and canals recently made into it. 2dly, The navigation upwards, between Richmond and Staines, from the violence of the current, &c. is, in places, dangerous, tedious, uncertain, and expensive. 3dly, Repeated but ineffectual trials at a considerable expence have been made to amend the navigation between Richmond and Staines, by ballasting, and making weir-hedges, jettoes, &c. 4thly, The mode of effectual amendment is by making opening weirs, with side cuts and pound locks. 5th, Three weirs, side cuts, and pound locks, are necessary for such effectual amendment. 6. The expence of such weirs, side cuts, and pound locks, will not exceed 20,000*l*. 7. The present trade will, at the small additional toll of only 2*d*. a ton a voyage, pay for the whole of these improvements. And 8. Many great and material improvements will be obtained by such effectual and cheap amendments to the barge-masters, navigators, land-owners, wharfingers, millers, and the public in general. The Thames is of so much consequence to the public, that any attempt to meliorate its state deserves serious attention; and to those who are to take it into consideration we recommend the above remarks, which may be consulted with advantage by those who are concerned in the navigation of other rivers. The writer's plan of printing maps of estates with moveable types is capable of great improvement, and deserves encouragement. By his method, on the same sheet that relates the particulars of the estate to be sold, is given a plan of it, by which every bidder may gain more information by one inspection than he could by a laboured detail in writing. The plan, we perceive, has been already adopted at some sales at Garraway's; and on sending a small plan of the estate by post to Mr. Henley, he returns, at fixed prices, any number of printed plans upon a larger scale, according as they are desired.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE letter signed 'No Soldier' did not arrive in time to be answered in our last. Taking no notice of this writer's bad grammar in the first line, nor of his bad pun in the second, we proceed to observe that it was not our intention to establish what he calls a 'rhythmical creed,' but merely to set some reasonable bounds to the liberties which every versifier thinks he has a right to take, because he finds passages in our best poets which sanction those liberties. However, the instances which 'No Soldier' brings forward, are not parallel; and if they were, we can refer him for the justification of our censure to much better critics than ourselves. But we know how to appreciate both the value and the motive of a remonstrance, which smells strongly of *Bæstia*.

An answer to the Lover of Truth's last letter shall be left at Mr. Mawman's, as before.

We are much flattered by the good opinion and good wishes of Philo-Criticus.'